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THE JUNIOR-COLLEGE MOVEMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS*

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The remarkable development of the American high school has in the last few years created a considerable number of altogether new educational problems. The college and the university are often directly and always indirectly affected by the policy adopted by our high schools, and in the present junior-college movement they are likely to find their own organization and procedure radically affected. Responding to various motives occasional high schools have for a great many years past offered work somewhat in advance of the college-preparatory work with which the curriculum of most of our high schools in this part of the world comes to a close. In certain instances this advanced work frankly undertook to follow the lines of the work of the Freshman year in the ordinary American college, and was organized explicitly with a view to supplying this special program. In other cases the content of the advanced work was more incidental, if not accidental, and materially more limited in amount. Within the past ten years we have had several instances of high schools undertaking to supply two years of work in advance of the usual four-year high-school course, and in this case often calling themselves junior colleges. More recently we find in the state of California, as the result of special

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legislation, a state-wide system by virtue of which high schools are authorized to enter upon this junior-college plan. A considerable number of schools have already availed themselves of the opportunity thus offered, and experience is rapidly in the making as regards the advantages and disadvantages which attach to such an arrangement. In Illinois we have had for a dozen years or more at Joliet an interesting and highly instructive experiment going on before us on the same lines. Many members of this Association will probably recall the similar experiment substantially contemporary with the Joliet plan which was launched at Goshen, Indiana, and which for purely local reasons has been discontinued. Within the last few years two of our great Chicago high schools, the Lane and Crane technical schools, have developed vigorous junior-college organizations which promise to develop in the most successful way.¹ Still more recently at Grand Rapids and Detroit similar enterprises have been set afoot, and many other schools throughout the general territory of this Association have either made actual beginnings in this direction or are laying plans for such a beginning in the near future. There seems therefore to be no reasonable question that the movement has come to stay, and the problem now before us is its wise guidance and the discounting so far as possible of the dangers and difficulties to which it may be naturally exposed.

At the request of the officers of this organization I have attempted to secure some expressions of opinion and some statements of actual fact regarding the circumstances as they now exist in the central and western parts of the United States. Within the limits of such a paper as this it is quite out of the question to attempt a detailed summary of my findings, but I can perhaps give a correct impression of the general situation.

My report deals with replies to a questionnaire sent to nineteen universities and seven colleges, members of the North Central Association, or institutions similar in character, to the south and west of this territory. Eleven high schools with junior-college departments have reported.

Of the nineteen universities replying among which are represented most of the important state universities, although not all,

¹A junior-college curriculum has been also established this year in the Senn School.

three have definite arrangements whereby junior colleges conducted by high schools and complying with certain requirements are approved, and their graduates when properly certificated allowed to enter the third year of the college work. Several others have recently announced arrangements whereby a similar agreement with certain specified high schools will be approved, and in at least two instances, i.e., the University of Missouri and the University of Texas, the state university has entered into relations with certain private collegiate institutions, whereby the latter become distinctly junior colleges and send their graduates into the third year of the university work. Other universities, notably Chicago and Wisconsin, have in earlier days made similar experiments. All the other universities in the group, constituting a decided majority, grant credit for fifth- and sixth-year work done in the high school only upon some form of examination. Sometimes this consists of an actual examination of the conventional kind; sometimes the result is attained by requiring the student to do successfully more advanced work in the line in which he asks for advanced credit. In other cases there is no requirement made for the continuation of this special type of work, but the demand is made that the student's general record shall be of high grade for the first year after his entrance into the university if the credits asked for are to be permanently recognized. Some of the institutions report that the question has as yet assumed no actual significance for them because of the absence in their part of the country of any high schools undertaking to do work beyond the fourth year. This is notably true of certain universities in the states just to the west of the Mississippi states.

The practice of the seven colleges replying to the inquiries show on the whole something of the same variety of practice peculiar to the universities, but in no case has the writer chanced to encounter a reputable college which has as yet entered into any such definite relations with junior colleges based on high-school foundations. No such college has reported itself as positively refusing to consider credentials of this kind, but only one or two indicate that they are presented with any frequency, and it appears that in such cases the treatment accorded a student is based on individual investigation of the merits of the particular case.

It would appear, therefore, that we are dealing in this general matter with a situation varying very considerably in the different parts of the country and presenting little or no uniformity as yet in the educational practice of the higher institutions in their treatment of the credentials offered by junior-college high schools.

It is perhaps not without interest to find that in the general comments offered by the presidents and deans of the institutions replying, there is on the whole a distinctly more liberal attitude represented by the universities than by the colleges. This is perhaps only what one might expect, and it should be coupled with the further statement that some of the universities are quite as conservative in their attitude as any of the colleges. Where, however, the press of undergraduate students is so great as seriously to embarrass the facilities of the institution (this is the case in many of the large state institutions as well as in some of those under private endowment), it is not unnatural that a welcoming hand should be held out to any movement which promises to lessen the number of these undergraduates. On the other hand, in institutions which find themselves in a constant struggle to secure as many students as they would like (and this is undoubtedly the case with some excellent colleges), it is not to be wondered at that something less than unqualified enthusiasm should be felt for a policy which promises to decrease the number of first- and second-year students reporting in colleges courses.

It seems difficult to determine just when the idea of the junior college first secured public recognition as an essential contribution to our educational machinery. President W. R. Harper was certainly one of the early advocates of a somewhat sharp distinction between the junior college and the senior college. In the early organization of the University of Chicago he attempted to embody his ideas by a distinction in the organization of the two divisions of the University, and by emphasizing as against the collegiate character of the first two years of work, the university character of that offered in the latter part of the college course. It will also be remembered that he attempted to enlist the interest of a group of institutions in becoming junior colleges with no expectation of carrying work beyond this point, and with the definite intent to

leave to the universities the conduct of more advanced academic interests. In this undertaking he was only partially successful, but it seems not improbable that the program as he had it in mind will now after the passage of this score or more of years gain recognition in a slightly different form. President James of the University of Illinois appears in the eighties to have attempted to interest the authorities of the University of Pennsylvania in a development somewhat similar to the one we are now observing; and while the project had no direct relation to the high schools or to separate institutions called junior colleges, it will be recalled that in the early eighties the University of Michigan undertook to establish within its own confines a distinction between university work and college work, the practical effect of which was to obligate a student who chose so to do to carry on the last two years of his collegiate work in a rather more individualistic fashion than is usual, to invite his specialization in a major and two minor fields with the presentation of a thesis in the major field. No doubt many other instances might be cited of general educational movements looking to the breaking down of the conventional lines of demarkation between the high school and academy on the one hand and the college on the other, the motivation to not a little of which is to be found in the conviction that the period between the present four-year high school and the four-year college does not mark any real educational transition, and that most of our Freshman work and much of our Sophomore work is purely secondary in character, whereas there is a period some time toward the end of the second college year where a genuine transition does occur in the case of a very large proportion of the students in all stronger colleges and universities. It is of course well understood that our American practice is widely at variance with Continental usages.

The immediate motivation to the present junior-college movement has, however, not come from the universities—however much they may have served the cause through occasional educational leaders and occasional agitation of educational ideals—but rather from the secondary schools and from the intelligent public that supports them. We have become familiar with the cry that the high school is the plain man's college. We are no longer so much

disposed to argue this point as we are to inquire, "What of it?" and if so, what is the next thing to be done about it? Intelligent schoolmen have not only been busied in attempting to make these schools supply more nearly than before the actual human demands of the young people in the towns, cities, and country districts which they serve, through enrichment of the curriculum with types of study generally taboo in the schools given over to preparation for college; but they have also been quick to urge the wisdom of adding longitudinally as well as horizontally to the resources of these schools, and through the entire structure from top to bottom they have sought by intensive improvement of the quality of the instruction offered to make these schools so attractive that every boy and girl would wish to stay in them as long as possible, and as a result of such residence would be found far better equipped than the older brothers and sisters had been for actual entrance on the practical work of life into which four-fifths of them are promptly drafted.

In response to considerations such as these it is altogether natural, especially in the case of places somewhat remote from the better colleges and universities, that the idea should have presented itself of developing on top of the high school part at least of the work customarily offered in collegiate institutions, whether the latter were ostensibly of the liberal arts variety or of the vocational and professional variety. A good deal can certainly be said for the practical desirability of keeping for another year or two within the influences of the home boys and girls who otherwise might go to college where their immaturity often exposes them to dangers which they would escape by longer residence at home. Moreover, a good many young people find it impossible to go away to college because of economic considerations, and still others are deterred from such attendance upon college, even when not actually prevented from it. To be sure, there is a good deal of evidence to indicate that anything which would serve to discourage some of our applicants for college entrance from actual attendance on the institution would be enormously in the interest of all concerned. On the other hand, there can be no question at all that to bring directly to the student's own door collegiate opportunities of a substantial kind is in very many cases to render a service of the

highest value both to the individual and to the community to which he belongs.

It is perhaps due to the fertility of resources bred by life in the far West, but more likely to the peculiar geographical conditions represented in the state of California, that in that state we meet with the earliest developed general state system for building junior colleges on high-school foundations, and that here the movement has gone farthest and most successfully. It will be very surprising if the success which has attended this California experiment is not widely imitated and probably improved upon in other parts of the country.

It is not without interest to remark the different ideals which already are making themselves felt in the organization of these junior-college schools. In some instances the attempt is frankly made to reproduce outright the work given in some model institution, in this case commonly the neighboring state university. This conception clearly involves the idea that the junior-college high school should attempt to bring forthwith directly to hand the very same work done in the college or university itself, and done so far as possible in the very same way. On the other hand, there is a feeling in some quarters that the junior-college high school ought to strike out on its own lines in accordance with the special needs of its own community, and that it should specialize particularly in industrial, engineering, and vocational directions, with its main interest centered on young people who will not go beyond the instruction it offers, rather than on those who are expecting to continue in some larger institution. In other words, we have over again here the old schism with which we are so familiar, separating those who believe that the high school ought to conform primarily to the requirements for college entrance as against those who take an opposite view. We are most of us familiar with the intermediate position which alleges that the two things are in no final sense antagonistic to one another.

In the actual organization of these California schools, of which some seven have been kind enough to reply to my inquiries, I judge that there is a certain diversity of administrative practice with regard to their internal organization. In some cases they

apparently have attempted to organize the junior college altogether separately from the high school proper. They have a separate faculty and an entirely separate student body, and desire at the earliest possible date to have a separate building. At the other extreme is a tendency to obliterate all distinction from the four-year high school, to add two years of college work, but in no sense to magnify a differentiation of one program from the other. A compromise between these two extremes is seemingly the commoner tendency at the present moment.

The development of the junior-college high school seems on the whole to be so natural a consequence of our general public educational system that one can hardly cherish anything but sympathetic interest in the undertaking and hold one's self ready so far as possible to assist in a wholesome line of growth. Certain obvious dangers we must all recognize the moment attention is called to them. Not a few high schools are at present unable to do thoroughly even four years of secondary work. They lack equipment both of laboratories and of libraries; they lack adequately trained teachers; and they lack financial resources materially to improve their conditions in the immediate future. For such schools to consider the addition of a fifth and sixth year of work is a form of folly which local pride is unfortunately likely to encourage, but which ought to be described by outside disinterested parties in the frankest and most unequivocal terms. The result of such enterprises is sure to be confusion worse confounded. The first obligation of every school is to do thoroughly well its elementary work.

Again, there are many schools in communities of moderate size doing with admirable thoroughness the work which they pretend to attempt, schools which are little by little adjusting themselves more completely to the needs of their own communities, schools upon which intelligent and unbiased opinion can only entertain one verdict—and that of a thoroughly flattering kind. For many such schools the attempt to take on a fifth and a sixth year of work, even if there be a modicum of demand for it, is likely to prove itself highly ill advised, for it is reasonably sure to mean overloading teachers already carrying their full burden of work, it is almost

certain to involve attempting results for which the available facilities are wholly inadequate, and as a consequence to substitute for a well-organized school doing faithfully and intelligently the thing within its reasonable reach, a shoddy, ill-adjusted, and unsuccessful institution exposing itself to legitimate criticism and ultimate loss of public confidence. Only on the basis of adequate state aid could schools belonging to either of these two groups properly enter on junior-college work.

Contrasted with either of these types of institutions is a considerable group, for the most part found in the larger centers of population, but in a few instances located in smaller but well-to-do communities, where the work of a junior college can be well afforded by the constituency, and where not a few obvious advantages are sure to follow from the establishment of such a school. We have become accustomed through the notable example of one or two institutions in our own country to the idea that a great city may well support a municipal college or university much after the fashion in which state universities are supported. Such institutions are undoubtedly likely to be rapidly multiplied, and the junior-college high school is presumably in big cities the advance agent of this particular kind of educational prosperity.

Certain desiderata in the organization of the junior college on high-school foundations may reasonably be formulated as substantially essential to real success. The first of these without any great question is adequate financial support. We have certainly learned one bitter lesson in this country, which is that education like other earthly blessings costs money, and that one cannot secure it in its better qualities without being ready to pay the market price. Certainly to found a junior college without reasonable provisions for the added expenses which must be involved is unjustifiable from every point of view. The temptation to a contrary view is subtle and pervasive. In a school not badly crowded with students it may seem quite possible by a little rearrangement of the schedule or possibly by the introduction of one additional instructor to free sufficient time of the teacher of mathematics, the teacher of language, and the teacher of history to give courses to a small group of students ostensibly corresponding to the Freshman courses in

college. No doubt something can be done in the smaller schools by rearrangements of this character, but if the more advanced courses are really to be given satisfactorily it will be found that the small schools must almost certainly add to their facilities of laboratories and libraries, and that the advanced courses if they are to be given in a reputable way will require very considerable inroads on the time of the teacher and in some cases will, for their proper conduct, require distinctly more advanced training than some of the teachers will have received.

I am not prepared to urge that every junior college based on a high-school foundation must have its faculty completely occupied by the work of the college. Indeed, I can see some obvious practical advantages in having the teachers who carry the advanced work of the fourth year of the high school in direct personal touch with the work of the fifth and sixth years. I am quite convinced that a very large part of the friction which has been generated between the colleges and the high schools has been because the teachers in each institution, and particularly the college teachers, were so hopelessly unfamiliar with the actual conditions of work in the other type of institution. But whatever the decision regarding this issue, it is surely not open to question that the professional training to be demanded of teachers who do this junior-college work should be made distinctly more severe than in actual practice the demands have been which high-school teachers have had to comply with. I note that the California schedule demands that the Master's degree at least shall have been received from a reputable institution by the teachers who undertake the junior-college work. This seems on the whole a conservative and modest requirement. The requirement of the University of Illinois is similar but not quite so definitely formulated.

Admission to such a junior college is a privilege restricted in some schools to the really high-grade students. In others graduation from the fourth high-school year is all that is required. To discuss the merits of this restriction is impossible at this time. Obviously, however, it raises a question very fundamental for the ideals of these institutions.

There certainly should be, and in many of these institutions is, a limitation on the number of hours per week that a teacher may be called upon to give. Moreover, there should be assurance that the methods of instruction are essentially collegiate in character.

Evidently there are three main groups of interests to be safeguarded in the situation which we have been considering. The first is that of the colleges and universities; the second, that of the high schools; and the third, that of the general public which supports both. It may be thought that such a distinction of interests is artificial and unreal, but in point of fact it corresponds with a good deal of exactness to the cleavage into parties which characterizes educational as well as political life. I have given them in inverse order of what I consider to be their intrinsic importance and directly in the order of their ability to protect their own interests. The colleges and universities are on the whole best able to safeguard these interests. The high schools are in general exposed to more sources of injury and such as are on the whole less easily controlled. The general public is in the long run best able to protect itself, but at the outset is least likely to find its immediate interests championed by intelligent and forceful leaders.

It goes without saying that in the last analysis a sane estimate of the situation must be based upon the largest and most far-seeing considerations. It must be in no narrow sense partisan, it must not be provincial, it must not be ignorant. In speaking, therefore, to the three groups of points raised by the distinctions just drawn, we are frankly dealing in a purely tentative manner with the more obvious and obtrusive angles of the case as they present themselves in terms of our current practices and prejudices.

Taking the matter from the point of view of the colleges first, it is clear that if the junior-college movement in the high schools develops with rapidity, there will presumably be a material decline in the number of Freshman and Sophomore students in our strictly collegiate institutions. This result will be welcomed enthusiastically by the administrative authorities of many of the larger institutions, which are literally staggering under the press of undergraduates; it will be much less enthusiastically greeted by the

small and struggling college to which numbers are absolutely indispensable for its continued life. We may therefore reasonably expect to hear from these latter sources a great deal about the indispensable value of a four-year college course, of the unwisdom of interrupting college life abruptly in the middle and subjecting the student to the necessity of orienting himself afresh in a new community; of the undesirability of remaining too long in a single institution like a high school; of the unwisdom of foregoing the larger atmosphere of the bona fide college, etc.

It seems not altogether improbable that we may for a time meet in an aggravated way the type of criticism now universal in every well-bred college where it is good form to complain of the poor training with which Freshmen come up from the high schools and academies. It seems not improbable that by virtue of the fact that a considerable number of schools may be tempted into this advanced work prematurely, and that they may fail to secure reasonable results thereby, we shall have to recognize a great deal of such criticism as well founded and just. On the other hand, it is to be said that the experience of the University of California with the students of a number of the junior-college high schools has shown them abundantly able to carry the advanced college work. In many instances they have done this even better than the students trained immediately on the grounds. Colleges which have been receiving students from the Joliet school and from the Lane and Crane technical schools would, I am sure, in many instances give an absolutely identical verdict. The college is of course entirely justified in asking that if students are to be received into its advanced courses they should really be able to carry their work with success. It may well occur that for a time, if not indefinitely, the colleges will be justified in regarding credentials from these institutions as subject to confirmation by the manner in which the later work of the student is conducted. This practice obtains in the handling of exchange credentials as between institutions of strictly collegiate rank, and need not be interpreted as containing any invidious reflection upon the persons party to it. It does not appear to the present speaker that the colleges have anything to fear from the dangers which are intrinsic to the principle of the

junior college based on the high-school foundations except the loss in student attendance, and this, as has already been repeated, is to most of the large institutions a welcome and not an unwelcome prospect. Friction of adjustment there undoubtedly will be, and the soul of the temperamentally conservative kind is sure to be troubled by this new program. Others need feel no solicitude, and on the contrary may justly welcome the movement as in the line of wholesome educational progress, and as one which it behooves the universities to foster and aid with wise counsel and kindly sympathy.

From the point of view of the schools it seems clear, as has been earlier indicated, that the addition of one or two years of college work is fraught with some dangers unless the financial support for the enterprise is reasonably generous, unless the qualifications of the teachers are thoroughly sound, unless the laboratory and library facilities are adequate, and unless the local demand for such an institution is genuine and reasonably energetic. To undertake such work without adequate equipment of staff and teachers is seriously to overstrain the extant resources of the school both in personnel and in equipment, is to invite failure or very mediocre success, and therefore in the long run is likely to sacrifice public confidence and set back the general movement because of shortcomings which are intrinsic to the local situation and in no sense to the system as such.

The interests of the general public are fundamentally touched at every point of the situation. Ambitious principals and superintendents are likely to be injudiciously stimulated to premature developments of the junior-college movement in communities which are financially not able to afford proper support, and which really represent too trifling a demand to justify the necessary expenditures. On the other hand, phlegmatic or reactionary school authorities are likely in some communities to discourage and unduly postpone the development of institutions of this type where the community is abundantly able to afford support, and where a service of unquestioned value could be rendered both to the community and to its young people. Communities may certainly demand that institutions of this character be peculiarly

sensitive to local needs and that the junior college be not simply an ambitious attempt to copy the first two years of the conventional college program. The whole question of the system of taxation by which these institutions are to be supported and the relation of that system to the support of state institutions requires careful and thoughtful consideration. In states with a strong and well-organized state university there is no reason why the most intimate and helpful co-operation should not exist as between the state and local institutions. The one thing which the communities ought most strenuously to insist upon, and the one for which it is perhaps least likely that there will be intelligent appreciation in advance, is the need of thoroughly competent and well-paid instructors to carry on this new work.

It would in my judgment be a great mistake to view the movement as purely an administrative rearrangement of our college work. The meaning of the matter seems to me to lie much deeper than that. If I mistake not, it is one symptom simply, but one fraught with immense potential consequences, of a renaissance of communal interest in higher education, of which the first great wave gave us our noble state universities and our agricultural and engineering schools. This, which has been gathering strength for several years in the evolution of the high school proper, promises in a similar way to bring opportunities for advanced vocational training to the very doors of thousands of boys and girls previously denied them, to offer to thousands of others who really are prepared to profit by them the various forms of collegiate education, and in general to disseminate in the commonwealth more widely than ever before the desire for sound learning whose perfect fruit is sanity of judgment and sobriety of citizenship.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL UNIT: QUANTITY, QUALITY, AND CREDIT

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The excellent article by Charles H. Judd in a recent number of the *School Review* upon "Formalism in Defining High-School Units" deserves careful study by all who are interested in promoting honesty and efficiency in the administration of our schools and colleges. Mr. Judd sets forth the ambiguity of present-day practice in schools and colleges in the matter of evaluating the work done in the high school; he shows at once the complexity of the problem and the pressing need of a solution; and he points the way to a solution, urging a reconsideration of the unit for the sake of the college, the high school, and the individual student. In conclusion, he says: "Let the high schools define the value of their units. Let both high schools and colleges study the problem of the work done. Let students and teachers alike give up the purely formal estimation of credits and recognize values in something like their true relations."

The question immediately arises: How can these things be accomplished? The present paper is intended as a modest contribution toward the answer to this question.

It is always to be remembered, when considering this matter, that a unit of high-school work is very difficult to define in any other than a quantitative way. The quality of the work accomplished by the student is the result of so many and such diverse factors that it can be determined only approximately, and its evaluation must always remain open to revision in the light of subsequent developments. But the school must set its seal upon its work, specifying as precisely as possible the extent and value of the units credited to each student. The chief difficulty appears, therefore, when it becomes necessary to record the credit due to a student who has done more or less acceptably in any course the work defined as a unit.

Unquestionably there is a considerable difference in the educational value of courses of equal formal extent in different subjects, of successive courses in the same subject, and of similar or different courses under the direction of teachers of different capacity or training; so that an exact and universally acceptable evaluation of any course in the curriculum is entirely beyond our reach, and each course admitted to the curriculum must depend for its standing, not upon its intrinsic worth, but upon ulterior considerations. For this reason, it is not possible for any man or committee to prescribe a course of study and define its several units for all the schools of the land. There must be perfect freedom everywhere for the schools to carry out their supreme purpose of training for useful citizenship in a wide range of local circumstances. If courses requisite for admission to college, but not essential to democratic citizenship, are offered, they should be made elective, and no constraint should be exercised by the faculty except such as may be necessary to prevent too great a dissipation of the student's energies upon irrelevant subjects of study or distracting forms of sport or amusement.

But, however the curriculum as a whole is constituted, its several units must be pretty clearly defined. Evidently there must be a certain quantitative definition, capable of mathematical measurement within narrow limits. This, however, is only a part of the question. The extent of the unit is not the full index of its value. A unit of first-year algebra should not be considered to have absolutely the same credit value as a unit of equal time-extent in fourth-year Latin. They should, however, have the same value relatively to their place in the whole course of study. Satisfactory completion of the one should count for the same amount of credit to the first-year student as equally satisfactory completion of the other in the case of the fourth-year student. Thus, the several units of the course of study should have relative values according to the order in which they are taken by the student; and this seems so important that the discounting of the credit allowed for work done out of the regular order would seem to be abundantly justified.

This brings us to the question of the valuation of the work of students, and of how they may be encouraged to do work of more

than merely passable grade. The answer must surely be: By a strictly qualitative determination of the credit allowed for their work. And now, at the risk of too great elaboration, the writer will briefly outline a scheme which might serve as a general method of procedure.

Let the present-day requirement for graduation from high school and admission to college, fifteen units, remain; and let it be understood that a unit means five recitations a week for a school year. But for the purposes of credit and record, let the unit have a maximum quantitative value of 200 *points*—the half-unit, 100 points; and let courses requiring one, two, three, or four recitations per week be valued proportionally. So much quantitatively, the courses considered by themselves. Now let there be a *qualitative* valuation of the student's work, expressed by five grades—A, B, C, D, E. Those obtaining grade A are given a credit toward graduation of 100 points for a five-hour course extending through a half-year, and proportionally less for shorter courses. Those obtaining grade B are credited with 90 per cent of the maximum quantitative value of the course; those obtaining grade C, with 80 per cent; those obtaining grade D, with 70 per cent; those obtaining grade E, with failure. Let it be understood, furthermore, that in order to graduate from high school the student must obtain an aggregate of not fewer than 2,400 points. Further, in order to discourage the tendency of weak students to undertake too many courses, let it be understood that no student whose grade falls below C in any half-unit of a semester's work shall be permitted to carry more than four half-units the next following semester. And, lastly, let it be understood that no grade higher than C shall be given for work done by a student either in advance or in arrear of his rank in the school.

A simple calculation will show that with such a scheme of credits a superior student might complete the fifteen units and 2,400 points in three years; the average student would require four years; while the poor student would require from four and a half to five years.

One thing more. In order that any scheme of awarding credit may work with approximate uniformity, it seems requisite that

the grades be given in close conformity to a conventional norm. The instructor, when grading any particular group, should give A to the few, if any, whose work seems to approximate the best he has known in the same subject; to the few at the opposite extreme, E; then, of those who remain, about half should be given grade C, and the rest, B or D, according as their work seems to be above or below the average in quality. In the long run the several grades might be expected to be distributed by percentages about as follows: A, 3-10; B, 15-22; C, 40-50; D, 15-22; E, 3-10. Such a scheme leaves considerable play for errors of judgment, while avoiding any great disparity of grading by the instructors.

It may be thought that this is all too formal and complicated—and formalism is just what we want to avoid. But let us distinguish between *empty* formalism and *purposeful* formalism. Crediting work with the emphasis on quality may be just as formal as giving credit with the emphasis on quantity, but there is all the difference in the world between the two. There must be a formal definition of the unit, a formal definition of the value of the work done, a formal record of credit; but these things must not be *merely* formal. They are but means to an end.

In conclusion, the matter of the present paper may be thus summarized: First, it is fundamentally important that the courses and studies offered in a school be such as are approved by reason of their fitness to supply a real demand; second, it is important that the unit be defined quantitatively with respect to extent and content, qualitatively with relation to the work of the student and teacher, and that the credit allowed for such work be determined by a valuation whose factors are both quantitative and qualitative; and lastly, it is reasonable to expect from such a program that there will result a better understanding in the faculty, better work by the students, and a more elevated moral tone in the whole school.

A FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEM IN THE REORGANIZATION OF THE HIGH SCHOOL

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At a meeting of the Department of Superintendence held in Cincinnati in 1915, formal action was taken by the Department, giving its approval to the six-year high school. At the same meeting, the federal commissioner of education, Dr. Claxton, advocated the general adoption of the six-year high-school plan throughout the country. Further, the six sessions of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, held in connection with the Department of Superintendence, were largely devoted to problems directly or indirectly affecting this topic. In a number of commonwealths state officers of education have frankly advocated the adoption of the six-year high-school plan in some form. If one examines the educational literature of the past few years, he will find that few problems have received as much attention as the reorganization of the secondary schools. All these facts point toward one end, that the movement for the six-year high school which has been agitated more or less strongly for two or three decades has ceased to be a matter of purely academic discussion and is becoming a very real and practical problem of organization. This is seen, further, in the number of cases in which a six-year high school has been actually put into operation.

A movement which will mean such an extensive reorganization of our entire school system demands exhaustive analysis. If the plan for the six-year high school is to be put into general operation, it is imperative that the specific changes which are to be made shall rest on sound fundamental principles. There is always the danger that boards of education and school officials seizing on the general proposition without a careful analysis of the various specific problems that are involved may encourage a reorganization of the system which may prove superficial and fail to solve the basic

difficulties. There is always the danger that the reorganization may be one in name only and that the real reforms to be made may be quite neglected. That this is a real danger is apparent to any student of secondary education who has examined the actual programs and the actual organization of many of the high schools which have recently been organized as six-year high schools or on the junior and senior high-school plan. Many of these reorganized schools have entirely failed to carry out the changes which are really vital in the reorganization of the school system.

It is not my intention, in discussing the problem before us, to attempt an analysis of all the factors which must be involved in any scheme for the reorganization of the high school, but rather to call attention to one fundamental principle which is, in my opinion, either neglected or misinterpreted in many cases. I propose to discuss the organization of the school system as affected by the nature of the development of boys and girls between the ages of approximately twelve and eighteen years.

When one examines the literature of secondary education he finds it replete with references to the high school as the institution for the education of adolescent boys and girls. It is constantly maintained that adolescent boys and girls differ quite radically from preadolescent boys and girls and hence that the methods and materials of teaching, the organization and administration of the high school, being adapted to the needs of adolescents should differ radically from the methods and materials of teaching, the organization and administration of the elementary school. It is further commonly maintained that the change from preadolescence to adolescence is relatively sudden and abrupt and hence that a relatively radical differentiation may be made between elementary education and secondary education. This sudden and abrupt change which is supposed to occur at adolescence has been made the basis of the distinction between the elementary school and the secondary school. For many years the assumption that relatively sudden and abrupt changes take place in the individual at the age of approximately fourteen years has been made the justification of our present division between elementary and secondary education. More recent studies of the phenomena of adolescence

have been interpreted to indicate that the adolescent period usually begins at an earlier period than at the age of fourteen, probably nearer the age of twelve. As a result the assertion is now made that the high school should begin at that age.

A recent writer presents the argument as follows:

Again, the present mode of organizing and administering educational work in America is ill grounded. The adolescent period begins usually at about the age of twelve years. With the dawn of this new period come most notable changes in physical form, structure, and function, and most decided concomitant psychological changes. At this period self-consciousness is born. The interests that formerly held dominant sway are cast aside. New motives stir, new aspirations fire, new goals beckon. Conscious logical reason begins to proclaim itself. . . . The beginning of adolescence is most emphatically the beginning of the period of secondary education. As our schools are organized today this fact is ignored.¹

Here we have the propositions clearly set forth that adolescence is a period of marked and abrupt change in the character of the individual, that adolescence begins at approximately the age of twelve, that the beginning of adolescence should mark the beginning of secondary education, and the implication that our schools can be organized on that basis. The same general principles were enunciated by Dr. Claxton in his address before the Department of Superintendence at its last meeting when he recommended the six-year high-school plan on the basis of marked physical and mental changes which take place in boys and girls at approximately the age of twelve. The argument is one of the stock arguments set forth in support of the six-year high-school plan.

Now, if this theory is correct, if there is good ground for believing that a somewhat radical change takes place in boys and girls at approximately the age of twelve years, so that pupils at the age, let us say, of twelve years are radically different from those same pupils at the age of eleven, or pupils of the age of thirteen years are radically different from the same children at the age of twelve, there is justification for making a sharp division of education between the two ages. The whole question, however, will bear closer investigation. Three fundamental problems are involved. The first is whether there is any one age at which the individual

¹ C. O. Davis, quoted at p. 69 of Johnston and others, *High-School Education*.

in his development undergoes markedly greater changes in his mental make-up than at any other period with reference to inner growth alone. Is the nature of the development of the individual such that there are in general periods of relatively rapid growth and relatively slow growth, or is the development essentially gradual and continuous with no marked points of sudden and abrupt change? Here we have on the one hand the theory of saltatory development with particular reference to somewhat sudden and abrupt changes in the individual at the beginning and during adolescence. Such is the theory propounded by Dr. Hall and his school which is in general adopted by the writers above mentioned. On the other hand, we have the theory of gradual development suggested by Dr. Thorndike who holds that in so far as mental traits have been measured "they give no support to the theory of the sudden rise of inner tendencies. Indeed every tendency that has been subjected to anything like rigid scrutiny seems to fit the word 'gradual' rather than the word 'sudden' in the rate of its maturing." To quote further from Dr. Thorndike:

The one instinct whose appearance seems almost like a dramatic rushing upon life's stage—the sex instinct—is found upon careful study to be gradually maturing for years. The capacity for reasoning shows no signs by any test as yet given of developing twice as much in any one year from five to twenty-five as in any other. In cases where the difference between children of different ages may be taken roughly to measure the inner growth of capacities, what data we have show nothing to justify the doctrine of sudden ripening in a serial order.¹

This is neither the time nor the place to discuss the validity of the arguments adduced by advocates of the theories of saltatory development and of gradual development. It is sufficient for our purpose here to recognize that it is by no means a theory universally accepted that there is an age at which the beginning of secondary education should be determined because of sudden changes which occur in the psychological development of children at that age.

If, however, for the purpose of the argument, we grant the validity of the theory of saltatory development, we will have two problems which must be solved before we should be justified in

¹ E. L. Thorndike, *The Original Nature of Man*, pp. 260-63.

determining the beginning of secondary education at the stage of maximum change. It is recognized that the time of the onset of pubescence differs for boys and girls, that the time varies for either group, and that the duration of the process of change varies. Since we are dealing with a variable quantity it is important to know, not only the central tendency of the age at which adolescence begins (e.g., the average age for the beginning of adolescence), but also the amount of the variation from that central tendency. If, for instance, the central tendency of the age for the ending of prepubescence and the beginning of pubescence in the case of boys is found to be fourteen years and the variation were such that the majority of boys began to be pubescent within a few months of that age, a working scheme allowing for adolescence would be possible. If, on the other hand, the variation is such that a range of a year or two from the central tendency age would be found necessary in order to include even a majority of boys, any definite adaptation of organization, subjects of study, or teaching method to the needs of the adolescent becomes impossible except in the most general way. The importance of this factor becomes clear when we consider the results of Dr. Crampton's measurement of nearly five thousand high-school boys of New York City, where he found that for the ending of prepubescence and the beginning of pubescence the middle of the mean years was fourteen years, the average age 13.44 years, with a variability of, more or less, 1.55 years or more than a year and a half. This means that with an average date marking the beginning of pubescence of about thirteen and one-half years, it required a range of more than three years to include only one-half of the boys measured. No satisfactory data of this character are available for girls, but it is worthy of note that the difference in the central tendencies of dates for the beginning of pubescence of boys and girls serves to make the situation more complex and to render any scheme for adapting the beginning of secondary education to the needs of adolescents impossible in any other than a general way.

In this connection the table of prepubescent, pubescent, and postpubescent boys of various ages (Table I) presenting the results of Dr. Crampton's measurements are most instructive. The figures

are well known but I shall quote them here as the basis of a rough study which I have made of a number of school systems.

TABLE I¹

Age in Years	Pubescent (Immature)	Pubescent (Maturing)	Postpubescent (Mature)
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
12.50-13.00	69	25	6
13.00-13.50	55	26	18
13.50-14.00	41	28	31
14.00-14.50	26	28	46
14.50-15.00	16	24	60
15.00-15.50	9	20	70
15.50-16.00	5	10	85
16.00-16.50	2	4	93
16.50-17.00	1	4	95
17.00-17.50	0	2	98
17.50-18.00	0	0	100

The important thing to note here in connection with the special point at issue is the amount of variation which is evident. Assuming that we should be able to group all boys of the age of thirteen in a single grade, on the basis of the results of Dr. Crampton's measurements we should find approximately one-half of the boys (41-55 per cent) immature, approximately one-quarter (26-28 per cent) maturing, and approximately one-quarter (18-31 per cent) already mature. Surely we cannot hope to adapt the organization, the methods and materials of teaching to the needs of the adolescents in that group except in the most general way. I have applied the estimates made by Dr. Crampton to the age-grade distribution of the first grade in a number of city high schools. In every case on the basis of his estimates we should find approximately one-quarter of the first-year high-school boys immature, about one-fifth in the maturing stage, and about one-half in the matured stage. Anything like close adaptation of methods, etc., to such conditions is out of the question. The variability is altogether too great to permit it.

With certain rough estimates of the distribution for ages below the ages given by Dr. Crampton I have made a rough estimate of the variability of boys (grouping them as immature, maturing,

¹ C. W. Crampton, "Anatomical or Physiological Age *versus* Chronological Age," *Pedagogical Seminary*, XV, 230-37.

and mature on the basis of his percentages) in a number of school systems from the first grade of the elementary school to the last grade of the high school. Table II indicates the results of applying such a measure (admittedly a rough measure only) to the age-grade distribution of boys in the Paterson (New Jersey) High School of 1912.

TABLE II

Grade	Immature	Maturing	Mature	Total Non-Mature
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
I.....	99.6	0.4	0.0	100.0
2.....	98.9	1.1	0.0	100.0
3.....	95.0	4.4	0.6	99.4
4.....	88.8	8.8	2.4	97.6
5.....	77.8	16.7	5.5	94.5
6.....	64.8	23.1	12.1	87.9
7.....	50.8	25.2	24.0	76.0
8.....	35.0	23.7	41.3	58.7
I.....	25.3	21.8	52.9	47.1
II.....	8.2	12.9	78.9	21.1
III.....	3.5	7.5	89.0	11.0
IV.....	1.1	2.7	96.2	3.4

The age-grade distribution of boys in the Paterson High School for the year 1912 represented no unusual situation and may be taken as fairly typical of the majority of high schools in the country. If the rough estimates given above are even approximately correct, a number of important facts are to be noted. In the first place, we may note that from the first grade of the elementary school to the last grade of the high school the proportion of immature boys decreases gradually and the proportion of mature boys increases gradually. The change between the first and second years of the high school is, however, noteworthy. The second point to be noted is that (in this particular school at any rate and for the particular time when the figures applied) Grades 7 and 8 of the elementary school and Grade I of the high school represented a transition period, three-quarters of the boys in the seventh grade being either in the immature or maturing stage and three-quarters of the boys in the first year of the high school being either in the maturing or mature stage. The distribution manifest, however, indicates clearly that the change from elementary-school methods to high-school methods must be gradual and that any sharp distinction

between elementary education and secondary education at the beginning of the seventh grade is impossible on the basis of the stage of development reached. In the third place, it may be noted that in each grade from the first through the sixth grade of the elementary school the groups are fairly homogeneous in the sense that they are predominantly composed of non-mature boys. In the fourth place, it may be seen that for the last three grades of the high school the groups are fairly homogeneous in the sense that they are predominantly composed of mature boys. Perhaps it would not be forcing matters too much to indicate the conditions for boys in the school measured somewhat as follows:

Grades 1-6: Boys predominantly non-mature: group fairly homogeneous;

Grades 7-I: Boys in transition stage: group widely variable;

Grades II-IV: Boys predominantly mature: group fairly homogeneous.

I have applied the same criteria to a number of city school systems with results sufficiently close to those found in the Paterson schools to warrant a personal opinion that the conditions found in the latter schools are fairly typical.

Now, if these conditions may be considered typical and if we assume that noteworthy psychological changes accompany the physical changes which are found in the prepubescent, pubescent, and postpubescent stages of the development of boys, a certain justification may be found for the division of the school system indicated above as far as boys alone are concerned. Unfortunately, however, what data we have regarding the developing of girls before, at, and after puberty would indicate that the factor of coeducation would seriously affect any such division.

One point further must be emphasized before this topic is left. It is obvious that from the standpoint of the development of boys there is a critical period in Grades 7, 8, and I. It is in those grades that the greatest amount of variability is found with reference to the stages of development. The greatest difficulty in adapting the organization, materials, and methods of teaching to the needs of the pupils must come at the stages where there is the greatest amount of variability. As far as the phenomena of adolescence are concerned, it is clear that the variability is greatest in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school and in the first

year of the high school. It follows, therefore, that any attempt to make a sharp differentiation between elementary and secondary education, either between the eighth grade of the elementary school and the first year of the high school, as our system is at present organized, or between the sixth and seventh grades of the elementary school, as is contemplated by many advocates of the six-year high-school plan, is quite unjustifiable. This is true even if we adopt the theory of saltatory development.

If we assume that the theory of saltatory development is correct, that there is a relatively sudden and abrupt change in children at the beginning of adolescence, that that change comes approximately at the age of twelve as some have maintained or at any other age, and further, if we assume that the variation from the central tendency is relatively small—small enough to permit children to be divided into groups relatively homogeneous with reference to chronological age and degree of maturity—if we assume all these things, we still have a third problem arising out of the common phenomena of the age-grade distribution of pupils in our public schools. Dr. Ayres in his report of the school survey in Springfield, Illinois, called attention to the fact that thirteen-year-old children were found in every grade from the first year of the elementary school to the third year of the high school in that city. A study of the age-grade distributions in more than twenty-five cities has convinced me that this is by no means an exceptional case. It is rather the rule. In more than one school system I have found pupils of the age of thirteen, fourteen, and even fifteen years in every grade from the kindergarten to the last year of the high school. Such cases, of course, merely represent the extremes of distribution. What is more to the point is the fact that in many, if not in most, school systems of children of any age group from twelve to fifteen or sixteen we rarely find as large a proportion as one-third in any single grade. Of the remaining two-thirds the distribution is commonly widely extended above and below the grade in which the mode falls. In Table III is presented the composite distribution according to age and grade of children in six city school systems (chosen at random) in terms of the percentages of each age group in the different grades of the elementary and high schools.

Only one of some thirty school systems examined showed an age-grade distribution which differed in any noteworthy respect from that represented in Table III and it is probable that the distribution indicated in the table is fairly typical of conditions in most school systems. If so, the very practical question arises: How can we adapt the organization and administration, the materials and method of teaching to the needs of the adolescent under conditions such that in no one grade do we get more than one-third

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS IN VARIOUS GRADES IN THE SCHOOLS OF SIX CITIES. TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS CONSIDERED WAS APPROXIMATELY 35,000

Grade	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14	Age 15	Age 16	Age 17
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
I.....	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
2.....	1.9	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1
3.....	5.8	2.8	1.5	0.6	0.4	0.0
4.....	11.7	6.7	3.4	2.0	0.6	0.1
5.....	22.1	13.2	7.1	3.3	1.4	0.3
6.....	28.2	21.5	12.2	6.6	1.9	0.8
7.....	21.6	27.5	21.3	12.7	5.8	1.7
8.....	7.0	19.8	28.5	19.6	12.6	4.6
I.....	0.9	6.4	15.9	27.5	20.7	10.9
II.....	0.1	1.0	8.7	22.0	31.0	26.6
III.....	0.0	0.0	0.8	4.8	19.4	27.9
IV.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	5.9	27.0

Percentage of 12-year-olds in the sixth grade or below: 71.5

" " 13 " " " " " " " " 45.2

" " 14 " " " " " " " " 24.8

" " 15 " " " " " " " " 12.5

" " 16 " " " " " " " " 8.5

" " pupils 12 years old or older in the sixth grade or below: 37.6

of the pupils of any given age group? It is argued that important changes calling for adjustment come with adolescence; it is argued that adolescence begins at approximately the age of twelve; it is argued that the high school should begin with children at the age of twelve. The obstinate fact is that we do not get even a large proportion of the children of the age of twelve or even of thirteen in the seventh grade. In order to apply any scheme of instruction which accords with a theory of adolescence based on chronological age it is first necessary that we should be able to group the children so that the age group may be fairly homogeneous. What the

relation is between chronological, physiological, and mental ages and how it might affect the situation we do not know as yet, but our ignorance on that point does not justify the presumption that the problem would be more easily solved if we were dealing in terms of psychological age rather than in terms of chronological age. The arguments as commonly adduced have been in terms of chronological age and for that reason the analysis here presented has been made in the same terms.

It was stated at the beginning of this paper that the argument for the "six-six" plan on the basis of the character of the development of boys and girls involved three problems. These have been briefly considered. The theory of saltatory development which forms the basis of the argument is itself open to question. If, however, we grant the validity of that theory, the recognized wide variability of the age at which puberty comes precludes any attempt to organize our schools on the basis of the phenomena of adolescence. Finally, even if we should grant the validity of the theory of saltatory development and even if we should assume that the variability were small enough to permit fairly homogeneous grouping, the age-grade distribution of pupils in the school system prevents us from adapting the organization to the needs of the adolescent in any other than a general way.

It is the opinion of the writer that the belief that the phenomena of adolescence demanded or justified a rather radical differentiation between elementary and secondary education has in the past done more to damage the work of the early grades of the high school than any other one factor. The gap between the last grade of the elementary school and the first grade of the high school as our system is at present organized is great and the readjustment which faces a boy or girl when transferred into the high school is tremendous. It is one of the principal aims of the reorganization of our system of education to eliminate that gap, to facilitate the necessary adjustment, and to ameliorate the articulation between elementary and secondary education. Many dangers beset us in our attempts to reorganize the school system on the six-six or the six-three-three plan. Not the least of those dangers is the danger that in making the reorganization we may merely transfer the difficulty so that it will come two grades earlier. Emphasis on

the theory that sudden and abrupt changes occur at adolescence, that those changes should mark the beginning of secondary education, and that the high school should begin at the age of twelve because of those changes, may well serve to perpetuate the very difficulties which it is one of the chief objects of the plan for reorganization to eliminate.

If we adopt the theory of gradual development with reference to mental traits, we must recognize that our school system should be so organized that from the first grade of the elementary school to the last grade of the high school the change for the pupils will be gradual and without points of abrupt transition, without sharply differentiated administrative divisions, and without radical changes in materials and methods at any one stage. If we adopt the theory of saltatory development we are forced to the same conclusion because of the variability found at any one stage and because of the distribution of pupils throughout the grades. We must certainly relegate to the limbo of discarded absurdities the theory that at any one period "self-consciousness is born" and that "conscious logical reason begins to proclaim itself." We must recognize that the boy or girl of seventeen or eighteen is quite different from the boy or girl of eleven or twelve, but we must also recognize the fact that when we are dealing with large groups of children the character of training appropriate to the intervening stages must vary gradually from grade to grade.

The six-year high-school plan offers a solution to many of the perplexing problems in our school organization most of which center around the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school and the first year of the high school as they are at present organized. The demands for reform are imperative and the indications are strong that they will be met. It is of the utmost importance that the reform of the work of the present seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school and the first grade of the high school be undertaken with the understanding that those grades represent distinctly a transition stage and that the changes which are made be undertaken with the intention of providing a gradual and continuous transition in which the conception of a radical differentiation between elementary and secondary education plays no part.

THE BEGINNINGS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN NEW ENGLAND¹

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I

The study of the origin and evolution of American institutions, though interesting and profitable, is beset with numerous difficulties. For some were inherited directly from Great Britain or the Continent and reproduced with but little or no change; others were more or less modified by the change in environment; still others were essentially new products devised to meet needs and conditions often peculiar to some particular colony or section.

American colonial education well illustrates these principles. Some of its main features, together with the means employed to carry on the educational process, were a direct inheritance from Great Britain, Holland, or other European countries. The colonies were settled by civilized peoples who were inheritors of educational ideals, institutions, and practices, which had been developing for a thousand years or more.² Among these may be mentioned the classical culture of the ancient world and the belief that the principal subject-matter to be employed in the later educational process should be Latin and Greek, keys to the literature of the peoples who used these languages. From the mediaeval world came the notion that education should be more or less under control of the church and clergy, and that the inculcation of religious ideals and beliefs should be one of the principal motives in education.³ The Renais-

¹ This study is from a forthcoming work by the author on the History of Education in the American Colonies to 1783, several additional chapters of which will appear in the *School Review* in the immediate future.

² An interesting but brief chapter on this subject may be found in E. Eggleston, *The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century* (1901), chap. v.

³ A. F. Leach, *English Schools at the Reformation*, 1546-48; F. Watson, *English Grammar Schools to 1660*.

sance intensified the former and the Reformation the latter of these two ideals. With the opening of the modern era, the notion developed more rapidly that it was the duty of the state to control or aid education in the interest of religion or good citizenship,¹ the former in particular where there was a close union between church and state; the latter because of a growing belief that education was an insurance against ignorance or a relapse to barbarism, and a necessary means to preserve and pass on to future generations the experience and knowledge of the race. Still another inherited notion was that of private philanthropy. From an early date generous individuals had dedicated a portion or all of their wealth to the cause of education.² The motive was sometimes religious, sometimes secular. Besides these more general principles, the colonists inherited not only many of the forms of organized institutions for education, such as the grammar,³ parish, and charity school, but also the machinery for administration, such as charters, statutes, officials, etc. To a great extent they were dependent on imported teachers, English and European notions of the curriculum, methods of instruction, textbooks, educational theories, etc.⁴

In the case of other features of colonial education the original forms were often modified by the new environment. For example, chartered schools endowed with lands, so common in England, were less important in the colonies, because land was plentiful, cheap, and failed to produce an income sufficient to defray expenses. Again, the apprenticeship system was unimportant in England as a means of education, but in certain of the colonies it was almost the only means whereby poor children could obtain any instruction. An example of one new feature was the principle set forth in the educational act of Massachusetts, 1647, that when a territorial division, the town, had a specified number of families, it must set up certain types of schools. This principle was unique, for never

¹ De Montmorency, *State Intervention in English Education*, 1902.

² N. Carlisle, *A Concise Description of the Endowed Grammar Schools in England and Wales*, 2 vols., 1818: a collection of charters, statutes, etc., of a large number of schools, with some descriptive matter.

³ Compare Stowe, *English Grammar Schools in the Reign of Queen Elizabeth*, 1908.

⁴ A chapter on the background of American colonial education will be included in the work mentioned above.

before had any legislative body enacted just such a law and enforced it with suitable penalties. Of the principles mentioned, those inherited were not reproduced by all the colonies in exactly the same form. Indeed certain features prominent in one colony do not appear at all in others. Again some were modified by one colony more than by another.

During the colonial period, there were certain forces which hindered uniformity in educational development, such as diverse race elements, environment, economic conditions, and religious beliefs. We must consider the variety of institutions, customs, and ideals brought over by the English, Dutch, Scotch-Irish, and Germans, the great planter of the South, the patroon of the New Netherlands, and the small farmer of New England. We must remember the antagonism between Puritan and Quaker, Established Churchman and Presbyterian, Lutheran and Catholic, and note that all these forces tended to produce a diversity which would hinder educational unity, particularly in certain of the colonies.

On the other hand, there were forces promoting uniformity in education. Within each section environment, economic conditions, and intermarriage tended to modify racial differences. Political and judicial control were in the hands of the English, and hence each colony was under one system which tended toward a common type. Most of the printed matter produced in the colonies as well as that imported was in the English language. The English occupied the seaboard while other race elements were largely in the back country—the frontier. Thus the former controlled the best lands, the slavery system, trade and commerce, with the opportunity to unify diverse elements through laws, courts, newspapers and books, and higher institutions of learning.

Sufficient has been said to show that educational development in the colonies must have varied widely. The complexity of the subject is one reason why comparatively little has been written in this field. From the standpoint of the historian writers on the history of education have been less successful in presenting their topic than those in other special fields, such as social, political, or constitutional history. This may be due to the fact that educational history has been greatly neglected by historical scholars, and

because other writers have often approached the subject rather from a philosophical than a historical standpoint. Some of these authors have not been trained as historians, and their books give evidence of a lack of knowledge of important sources bearing on educational history, as well as a lack of training in interpreting the sources which they have used. Again there is a failure to discuss factors which must be carefully considered if the history of education is to be adequately treated. Like the history of religion, it should be written with sufficient historical background and emphasis on other phases of man's social activity, to make clear all the forces that have essentially influenced what we call educational history in its narrower sense.

Our conception of what factors may have influenced the progress of education before the Revolution is largely determined by our notions of what is meant by the term "education."¹ A conventional view would confine the subject to the origin and description of organized institutions of learning, subject-matter and methods of instruction, and the theory or philosophy underlying the educational systems. Often histories of education consider little more than this last phase. But they should be called, more properly, histories of educational theory. They bear much the same relation to educational history that the history of economic theory bears to economic history.

To explain satisfactorily the origin and evolution of all phases of education in the American colonies, one must consider many influences, such as racial, economic, political, social, literary, intellectual, and particularly religious factors—all of which tend to perpetuate, modify, or change prevailing practices. The ideals of the teaching force, the method and textbooks used, and the curriculum as a whole are, to a large extent, the product of ideals and achievements of previous generations. It is clear, then, that to enumerate the factors that influence the progress of education one must take into consideration a great variety of facts and forces. This view implies that educational development is dependent on all the factors which influence human life and progress.

¹ See a paper by the author: "Factors Influencing the Development of American Education before the Revolution," *Proc. Miss. Valley Hist. Assoc.*, V, 190-206.

The most important contributory factors which influenced the educational development of each of the American colonies were ethnic or race elements—including inherited ideas or practices and the spirit of the race; environment—including geographical conditions, climate, and physiography; economic conditions—including distribution of land and population, industrial organization, and economic well-being; religion—including the relation of church and state, religious motives for education, and the influence of religious sects in promoting and controlling education; political conditions—including the relation of the state and education, the influence of forms of local government, such as town or parish; social conditions—including home influences, social classes and groups; intellectual conditions—including the proportion of educated men to the total population, average intelligence of the race, and the means of distributing knowledge, such as printing, libraries, and newspapers. The progress of education is dependent on all these factors and others not mentioned. In short, to understand its real development, we must know the reaction of geographical, economic, religious, political, social, and intellectual influences on education in its narrower meaning. In the light of what has been said, it is obvious that any detailed study of colonial education requires a survey of Old World social and intellectual conditions, as well as educational theories and practices, particularly in England. We must know what notions and traditions the colonists started with, in order to determine how far the educational institutions of the New World were reproductions, how far modified by new conditions, and what features were wholly new. Then the conditions within each group of colonies must be studied to determine the features of the educational system common or peculiar to each, with the reasons therefor, how far the groups influenced each other by law or custom, and the processes by which educational uniformity was attained, or for what reasons variations persisted.

II

We may now consider in detail the more important factors which influenced the beginnings of public education in New England. The number and character of its educational institutions,

as well as the rapidity with which they were established, warrant a careful study of the conditions and forces which account for such a development. By 1660 three of these colonies, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, had passed a remarkable series of educational acts and established agencies for education which in comparison with other colonies at the same date, such as New York or Virginia, were truly extraordinary. Indeed we may say that by this date several essential principles of elementary and secondary education had been formulated and the foundation of the American public school laid.

To understand the reasons for and nature of these institutions, one needs to keep in mind those more general influences already mentioned, viz., inherited features from the ancient and mediaeval world, intensified by the Renaissance and the Reformation, the philanthropic movement in England, 1550-1640, with the attendant increase in the civil control of education, the inherited types of educational institutions, methods, organization, and administration, and the content and philosophy of education. But such inherited notions and characteristics did not of themselves always lead to further activity, else it would be difficult to account for the history of Plymouth, Rhode Island, Virginia, and other colonies where progress was so slow. We must consider then those additional factors which influenced the character of the educational institutions of New England.

One group of important factors centers about the personality and character of the settlers. This involves such questions as their general motives in migrating, relative strength of contending motives after settlement, average intelligence, and the proportion of educated leaders, particularly clergymen. Then one must consider how far harmonious or contending religious, social, and political groups aided or retarded the development of public education, and how far the forms of local political and economic organization made it easy to legislate for the common good in educational matters. It will be found that even in such a homogeneous population as that of New England, these principles varied not only in the different colonies but even in the different towns of the same colony.

Another important group of factors in New England centers about environment and economic conditions, climate, extent of territory, the character, and distribution of the land, nature of occupations, and particularly the distribution of population in relation to centers where educational agencies could be established and intelligence easily transferred.

Bradford and Winthrop have told us the reasons for the early settlement of New England. Suffice it to say they go deep into English history, religious, economic, and political. That great upheaval of the sixteenth century, the Reformation, bred religious and political dissent from established authority in church and state. It placed emphasis on the worth of the individual man and encouraged the right of private judgment, especially with respect to the interpretation of the Scriptures. Sectarianism, a product of this principle, became one of the strongest forces which promoted intellectual development. For the desire to read and study the Bible and to have their children brought up in the faith of their fathers was one of the most important characteristics of the dissenting sects. The struggle between Churchmen and Dissenters and the flood of controversial literature which it brought forth furnish evidence of the increased mental activity resulting from sectarianism. This was intensified by the determination of such men as James I and Archbishop Laud to put down insurgency of church and state. Thus we can understand why one of the principal motives actuating the New England settlers, both before and after their settlement, was religious, and how closely it was related to education.

First in importance was the Massachusetts Bay colony. In the number, character, distribution, and quality of her educational institutions, she was pre-eminent, and established precedents which greatly influenced other colonies. The Puritan migration to Massachusetts was unique in colonial history for several reasons. The race stock was almost pure English, for the most part of one sect, and of excellent quality. Rev. William Stoughton, in his election sermon of 1668, declared that "God sifted a whole Nation that he might send choice Grain over into this Wilderness."¹

¹ Sibley, *Harvard Graduates*, I, 207.

Again, the proportion of educated leaders was probably higher than in any other colony. Nearly one hundred university graduates of Oxford and Cambridge settled in New England before 1650, most of whom acted as pastors of churches. The progress of civilization depends in large part on the ability and energy of its leaders, and in this respect Massachusetts was most fortunate. Nearly three-fourths of one hundred clergymen mentioned were from the University of Cambridge. More than twenty of these leaders were educated at Emanuel College, Cambridge, and were contemporaries of such men as John Robinson, Oliver Cromwell, and John Milton, who had received a portion of their education in this institution. Among these leaders were John Cotton, Nathaniel Ward, Thomas Shepard, and John Harvard. John Winthrop, the elder, attended Trinity, and Henry Dunster, the first president of Harvard, graduated from Magdalen College.¹ The migration to New England to 1643 is commonly reckoned at about 20,000, or 4,000 families. Thus there would be one person in 40 families, or one for every 200 emigrating, who had received university training. It is estimated that Massachusetts had a population of about 9,000 in 1639.² Moreover, a large proportion of her university men lived within a short distance of Boston or Cambridge. It is safe to say that such a concentration of educated men, in a new settlement, has never been duplicated. They were the intellectual leaders who gave the community its educational ideals. They doubtless influenced the passage of the educational acts and urged their enforcement. Knowing these facts, we can understand why a public school, a printing press, and a college were established in Massachusetts before 1640.

Unlike the leaders of the planter aristocracy of the southern colonies, the religious leaders of the Massachusetts Bay colony believed that the state was responsible for the education of the rising generation without respect to particular classes. Through the act making church membership the basis of the franchise³ their

¹ See the paper by Franklin B. Dexter, "Influence of the English Universities in the Development of New England," *Proc. Mass. Hist. Soc.*, 1879-80, XVII, 340-52.

² For estimates of population in the American colonies see *Proc. Am. Ant. Soc.*, N.S., V, 25.

³ *Rec. Co. Mass. Bay*, I, 87.

views would greatly influence legislation. It should be noted that almost without exception it is stated or implied in the early educational acts of New England that the principal reason for their passage was the desire to promote religion. By the acts compelling all persons to support and attend church, the people of the towns were brought together weekly. The ministers, so generally university men, had unusual opportunities to influence the people in favor of education. This weekly meeting also furthered social solidarity and community interest—an aid to public support of education.

As environment and general economic conditions have always played an important part in molding human institutions, so we find that these factors had influence upon education in New England. It so happened that the climatic conditions, physiography, extent and nature of the land, and economic forces all favored the group plan of settlement. The severe winters, poor soil, and lack of extensive inland water communication prohibited the production of great staple crops, and hence resulted a population thinly distributed; while at the same time they foreshadowed a society of small farmers, fishing communities, traders, and a greater and greater tendency toward manufactures, as the population increased, and the margin of productivity of the land diminished. It will be noticed that all of these factors almost forced people to settle in groups, rather than as individuals. What effect a different environment would have had on the Puritans had they settled elsewhere, for example in the South, it is impossible to say. But we are certain that the town system, if introduced, could hardly have had the effect on educational development that it had in New England. Moreover, it is difficult to believe that other features of the institutional life of New England necessary for rapid progress in education could have developed in the same manner.

Another important factor aiding the cause of public education in Massachusetts was the land system. Methods of distributing land have had a powerful influence on the development of American institutions.² The formation of a community group, occupying a

² See M. Eggleston, "The Land System of the New England Colonies," *Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science*, Series IV, Nos. 11 and 12.

comparatively small area, was a natural consequence of the desire of the people to be near each other because of the habit of living in villages in England. It was further intensified by the strong religious motive which led to weekly meetings at the church as well as the need of protection from the Indians. The general Court favored the principle of group settlement because it made easier the enforcement of the religious and moral principles involved in the Puritan ideals of a spiritual commonwealth.

These tracts of land, or townships, averaged about forty square miles each and were usually laid out contiguous to each other. Individuals were compelled to settle within the boundary of one of them.¹ Ordinarily a small group of men petitioned the General Court for a township; if the petition was granted the "proprietors," as they were called, could admit other persons and divide up the land as they wished. Usually the greater part of the land was held in common, undivided, until needed. This common land was of great importance, because it could be used for the common good and in the early period was often granted to aid in the support of religion and education.²

Still further, this system affected the distribution of population, compelling a density quite remarkable compared with that in the southern colonies, which aided in the development of the principle of taxation of all the people for the support of education. The difficulty of securing agreement on matters of public interest in towns with a widely scattered population as was often the case in the eighteenth century will be a subject for later comment. Thus the compactness of towns in the seventeenth century made possible a neighborliness quite unique, a most important factor in its influence on public education.

The town system of local government had so much influence on educational development, that it warrants close study. Indeed no other unit of local government has promoted so successfully so many aspects of community life, political, religious, social, economic, and intellectual. The word "town" was a name applied to a certain territorial division containing a group of people who

¹ *Rec. Co. Mass. Bay*, I, 167 (March 3, 1635/36).

² This point will be discussed in a future paper.

had associated themselves for political, religious, and other purposes in order to satisfy their needs. The state gave this group corporate existence and powers which were of great importance in promoting public education. The historical origin of this unit is a matter of dispute, but whether Germanic, developed from the English parish, of indigenous growth,¹ or a happy combination of all of these, matters little from our standpoint. For the important characteristics of group, in distinction from individual, settlement would remain as well as the resulting influences.

Certain acts passed by the General Court between 1630 and 1638 have an important bearing on the powers of the towns with respect to the subject of education. Up to 1635/36 the groups of people who had associated themselves at various places met in extra-legal assemblies of their own and passed orders for the common good. At this time, March 3, 1635/36, the General Court sanctioned the town system of government by passing an order giving particular powers to towns, such as the power to dispose of lands, make orders for the well-being of the town, lay fines and penalties for breach of orders, choose officers, etc.² In 1638 it ordered that every inhabitant should be liable to contribute to all charges both in church and commonwealth, "whereof hee doth or may receive benefit"; and every inhabitant not contributing in proportion to his ability to all common charges, "as well for upholding of the ordinances in the churches as otherwise," should be compelled to do so by assessment and distress.³ It thus appears that the towns had ample powers conferred upon them to provide for public education if they were so inclined.

By 1642, when the first educational act was passed, twenty-one towns had been founded in Massachusetts and the population had increased to about 9,000⁴. Most of them had a church and a settled minister, who was a university graduate. By this date

¹ For a discussion of the origin of the town see *Proc. Mass. Hist. Soc.*, 2d ser., VII, 172-263.

² *Rec. Co. Mass. Bay*, I, 172.

³ *Ibid.*, 240. Previously the General Court had ordered (May 14, 1634) that in all rates and public charges towns were to levy every man according to his estate and other abilities (*ibid.*, I, 120).

⁴ *Proc. Am. Ant. Soc.*, N.S., V, 25, note.

children were doubtless becoming numerous, and growing up with meager opportunities for even elementary education. In 1636 the General Court appropriated £400 toward the founding of a college,¹ and two years later John Harvard bequeathed half of his estate for its advancement.²

The influence of the educated ministers already mentioned in the founding and nourishing of Harvard College in its early history is of great importance in accounting for the development of elementary and secondary education in Massachusetts, and even in New England as a whole. It was realized that the group of clergymen educated at Cambridge and Oxford would for the most part pass away in a generation. Accordingly there was great fear that an illiterate or uneducated ministry would take their places.

"After God had carried us safe to *New England*, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our liveli-hood, rear'd convenient places for God's worship, and settled the Civil Government; One of the next things we longed for, and looked after, was to advance *Learning*, and to perpetuate it to Posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate Ministry to the Churches, when our present Ministers shall lie in the Dust."³

A failure to found a college within a generation or two would thus have been a great calamity from the Puritan standpoint. Not only would educated leaders soon be lacking, but a great stimulus toward the founding of public elementary and secondary schools would have been wanting. It will be seen later that the passage of the Massachusetts act of 1647 was greatly influenced by the desire to provide a school system which would supply the college with students who could be fitted to carry on the work of the group of clergymen educated in England.

But in spite of the extraordinary number of favorable influences and factors, educational progress was slow up to 1647, not only from our standpoint, but, as the evidence shows, quite unsatisfactory to the leaders interested in a more rapid advance. Yet it is the period before 1647, the date of the first act of Massachusetts which compelled towns to set up schools, that needs careful study. For a number of them had, by that date, established some of the important principles of the American public-school system.

¹ *Rec. Co. Mass. Bay*, I, 183.

² Quincy, *Hist. Harv. Univ.*, I, 451. The sum amounted to £729 19s. 2d.

³ *New England's First Fruits*, London, 1643; in Sibley, *Harvard Graduates*, I, 7.

AN EXPERIMENT IN TEACHING A COURSE IN ELEMENTARY SOCIOLOGY

W. G. BATE

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One of the various problems of high-school administration that demands considerable thought is the matter of teaching ethics. One method, which seems to have a possibility of fruitful development, is a course in elementary sociology and social problems. As one of the newer sciences, sociology has thus far been confined almost wholly to universities, colleges, and normal schools. The establishment of sociology in the smaller colleges and the normal schools is a matter of recent years. As far as high-school courses are concerned, only a few schools have attempted to work out such a course, and that within the past two or three years. In an article in the *Educational Review* of March, 1913, Professor Gillete reports only two high schools having successfully established a course in sociology.

The writer has been offering a high-school course in sociology and social problems during the past four years, and was teaching one of the courses reported by Professor Gillete. The results gained by this experiment have seemed to indicate that there is a large possibility of making such a course function satisfactorily, both as a course in sociology, and as a means of teaching ethics to high-school pupils. This course has been tried out in two schools by the writer, and the experiences in the first school were duplicated in the second. The course is offered as an elective half-year course for Juniors and Seniors. Seniors have been given the preference in registration. The course precedes the course in elementary economics. The text that has been used is Ellwood's *Sociology and Modern Social Problems*.

The first time the course was offered, it was frankly an experiment on the part of the superintendent and the writer, who taught the course. The original aim in giving the course was to arouse

an interest on the part of the pupils in existing social problems and their relation to life, and to develop a social attitude in the minds of those taking the course. This was to be accomplished by the presentation of concrete illustrations of social conditions, which were within the comprehension of the pupils, and through a study of some of the underlying principles of development of social progress.

It was found that this aim could best be accomplished by keeping in mind a few facts that soon became obvious, if they were not previously recognized. First, formal scientific sociology has little place in the high-school course. It is abstract, more difficult of comprehension, and fails to arouse the interest that should be gained by such a course. The course has to be organized around concrete situations, as far as possible. The subject-matter must be kept within the range of the boy or girl of high-school age. When this principle is observed in conducting the course, it will be found that every pupil in the class has a considerable fund of information and opinion, which may be drawn on in connecting the course with real life. There will be no difficulty in finding a supply of subject-matter that answers the description.

Secondly, the matter of a text is vital. So far as has been learned, there are few texts in sociology which will serve for this course. Practically all the texts written for elementary sociology deal almost wholly with the principles of the science rather than with concrete illustrations of the problems. The text mentioned above was chosen because it meets the demand of a high-school course better than any that the writer has been able to find. The text for this course must be very readable, written in simple style, deal to a large extent with concrete situations, and avoid the more abstract discussions as far as possible. Professor E. T. Towne of Carleton College has issued an outline of a text that promises to be almost wholly based on concrete illustrations. The outline does not indicate any discussion of the principles of the science except in the summary and conclusion.

While this course has never been given as a required subject and is left wholly elective, there has always been a class of from thirty to forty registered for it. This gives an opportunity to come in touch with a wide variety of adolescent opinion, and to

extend the influence of the course to a considerable distance. A short description of the handling of the class will best illustrate some of the things that may be done in the course.

On meeting the class for the first time it is usually found that very few have any but a vague idea of the subject-matter to be dealt with. Following a custom of the instructor, the first few days of the semester are taken for the purpose of a general introduction. In these first few days, sufficient time is taken to tell the class some of the whys and wherefores of such a course, and to outline rather definitely what it is expected will be covered by the "class discussions." From the beginning, the designation of the recitations as "class discussions" is followed. The reason will be seen later. The instructor tells the class frankly that the aim in presenting the course is to give some information about existing social conditions, i.e., conditions of life among certain kinds and classes of people, to discuss some of the social problems that are confronting the people of this country, and finally to get the members of the class started to thinking along these lines. A list of references is also given to the class, and voluntary reading is urged. Each member of the class is required to read one book dealing with a social problem and make an extended written report on the book read. Collateral reading in addition to this book is required from time to time, either by specific assignments or in connection with some topic which is to be reported on. One period a week is devoted to the report of readings of current social work, gleaned from magazines or books. Each pupil is required to make such a report at least once during the course. The pupils are left free to select an account which has interested them. It is made plain to the pupils at the beginning of the course that preference will be given at almost any time to legitimate questions or information in their possession which they think will bear on the subject under discussion. The aim here is to make them feel that the course will not deal only with things they must read about, but with things they know through observation or experience.

After the first week spent in this rather general discussion and introduction to the course, the outline is followed, as must be true in any well-organized course. The course is organized by topics.

Legitimate questions and opinions are found to be plentiful. A few of the class will be backward in this respect, but they are easily discovered and special effort usually remedies their condition. The normal high-school boy or girl is inquisitive, if not eager for information along any line in which he or she is interested, and the experience has been that little stimulation is needed to evoke interest in a course that deals with the actual conditions which the pupils know about, in part at least.

When questions are asked by pupils in the class, they are usually thrown open for discussion, and the result is that the topic under discussion at that time is covered in such manner that the ordinary methods of recitation quizzing are entirely unnecessary. In the semester just closed, the writer remembers but four days when the "oral quiz recitation" method was used, and in those cases it was for the purpose of summarizing topics which had been covered, but in which the summary had not been sufficiently clear. By means of a suggestion, question, or comment from time to time, the instructor can easily control the trend of the discussion so that the recitation becomes almost automatic. The instructor then becomes a leader in the discussion in the true sense. Of course the control of the class cannot be relinquished at any time, and the instructor must constantly stand as the immediate authority, supplementing the discussion and settling conflicting opinions because of his greater knowledge of the facts. The work, however, motivates itself, and the work of the course is accomplished in a most satisfactory manner. To illustrate, during the past semester, for a period of four weeks, the class was allowed to choose a chairman and conduct the recitation itself. The instructor sat with the class and did not take part in the discussion except when his opinion or knowledge was necessary or appealed to. The discussions followed the outline. During this period, one of the topics covered was that of population. A large amount of reference work in the census reports was necessary. This work was divided up and assigned by a committee of the class, appointed by the chairman. The reference work was done and reported; charts were made to illustrate the reports; and the topic covered in a thorough manner without waste of time. The instructor was consulted from time

to time; but the division and direction of work was accomplished without his assistance. Through the four weeks, the work moved along as rapidly and satisfactorily as if the teacher had been conducting the recitation, rather than sitting in the rear row of the classroom and watching the proceedings. This is merely to illustrate what may be done in the course. Another illustration of voluntary interest was when the New York Child Labor Exhibit was shown at the Public Library. All members of the class visited the exhibit, and asked that the secretary in charge of the exhibit be invited to speak to the class.

One part of the final examination is a paper of nine hundred words minimum, written on a topic of special interest and selected by the pupil from a long list of topics. The written report is the result of reading and observation and is usually a very creditable piece of work. The papers are credited in English courses through a scheme of correlation of the courses.

Now comes the question, What has been accomplished beyond a very interesting course? It is rather hard to measure accomplishment in the increase of social standards here; but one or two concrete illustrations may serve to indicate the attitude of those taking the course. The following incidents have all been the result of voluntary effort on the part of the class. Two of the classes planned to see that a number of poor children of the city, equal to the number of people in the class, had a Christmas. The idea started from a report by one of the pupils on the Goodfellow movement of the *Chicago Tribune*. A committee from the class went to the secretary of the local United Charities organization and secured a list of names, visited the homes, and reported to the class. Then the boys and girls, clubbing together, brought food, clothes, and toys, and packed a basket for each child. On Christmas Eve, another committee delivered the baskets and reported its visits to the class, after vacation. The work was checked by the instructor, sufficiently to verify the reports. Another class became interested in the dirty alleys of the city and reported its investigations. This same class investigated the sanitary conditions of the candy and ice-cream manufactories, and was the cause of considerable discussion through some of the newspapers, and at least one cleaning-up. The

class this year volunteered to help in a vocational survey being made by a committee of the teachers. The interest in this project grew out of the class discussions on poverty, and the effect of poor vocational education and direction. After the class had made its investigations, a week was profitably spent in discussing the subject of vocational training and choice, by pupils in the school. At the close of the semester, the instructor offered to talk during two class periods on any topic in the outline which the class should select. A large majority voted for the liquor problem, because, as two boys said, they wanted to know what "the best attitude on the subject" was. Near the close of the course, one of the boys, who is one of our greatest problems, came and stated that a number of the boys in the class wanted to know if they could have an advanced class for boys only, so that we could discuss some of the problems in which they were interested. Needless to say, that opportunity will not be allowed to be wasted.

The influence and the value of the course do not stop with the interest in the course itself. As principal of the school, I find it gives me a direct contact with these people in a way that cannot be overvalued. Not only do the boys and girls who take the work come to tell me that the course has done much for them in getting them to thinking and "seeing things differently," but a great many come with personal problems because they think I ought to be able to help them. It opens the way to become acquainted with the pupils personally. It gives an opportunity to secure their confidence, as well as to start them to thinking. An illustration of what I mean can be seen in the following. One of the boys in the class had been raised in the worst kind of a home life. His father was a liquor dealer, his mother dead. The boy had known no uplifting influence in the home. This boy came to me for advice as to what to do in life. He was at a turning-point and needed help. He said that the course had made him think, and he wanted to know what I thought he had better do. Another boy who came to talk over his personal problems had experienced all the consequences of a home torn apart by the divorce court. These are but two cases of many. In the experience of the writer, the contact gained in the class has been a most potent force in attempting

to carry out some of the work of personal help and teaching of ethics that is a part of every teacher's and principal's duty. The effect of the course upon those taking it is also noticeable in their attitude and their expressions of opinion in other classes. It is reported constantly by other teachers. It seems that such a course fairly bristles with opportunities.

Unfortunately, the course described above reaches only a little more than half of each year's Senior class. That is due to the very recent appearance of the course in the curriculum, and to the fact that it is elective. This course is not advocated as the best method of teaching ethics, but it does seem that there is a possibility of development along that line. There is little doubt that a course in elementary sociology and social problems can be made to function. After having taken three classes in four years, in this course, there is no hesitation in our minds about continuing and enlarging the work. This experiment in teaching sociology in the high school may be of interest to those who have contemplated organizing such a course for their schools.

The following outline is the one that is being used by us at the present time. It is based partly on the text, and partly on Professor Towne's outline.

OUTLINE OF THE COURSE

(Given to the class at the beginning of the 7th term)

I. INTRODUCTION—

A. Reasons for Studying Sociology

1. Definition of society
2. Relation of the individual to society
 - a) Interdependence and interassociation
3. Progress and social problems

II. INSTITUTIONS OF SOCIETY

- A. Family—Home
- B. Government
- C. Church
- D. School

III. THE FAMILY

- A. Reasons for; Historical Development
- B. Importance as Primary Social Organization
 1. Functions of

- C. Training of the Individual in the Home
 - 1. Love, altruism
 - 2. Authority, obedience
 - 3. Morality, loyalty, religion
 - 4. Citizenship
 - 5. Education
- D. Importance of Stability in the Home
- E. Divorce and Its Evils
 - 1. Causes
 - 2. Extent
 - 3. Results
 - 4. Proposed Remedies
- IV. GROWTH OF POPULATION
 - A. Old theories
 - 1. Malthus, Dumont, etc.
 - B. Economic Basis of Growth
 - C. Social Basis of Growth
- V. POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES
 - A. Rate of Increase; Present and Past
 - B. Distribution and Density
 - C. Rural and Urban
 - D. Races and Sexes
 - E. Present Tendencies
- VI. IMMIGRATION
 - A. Causes in General
 - B. Immigration to the United States.
 - 1. Causes
 - 2. Effect on growth of population
 - 3. Economic and industrial effects
 - 4. Social effects
 - 5. Political effects
 - C. Restrictions on Immigration—
 - 1. Present laws
 - 2. Proposed legislation
- VII. THE PROBLEM OF THE CITY
 - A. Causes of growth of large cities
 - 1. Natural resources
 - 2. Transportation
 - 3. Concentration of industry
 - 4. Minor causes
 - B. Moral Conditions in City Life
 - C. Social Life in the Great City
 - D. Political Conditions
 - E. Proposed Remedies

VIII. CHILD LABOR

- A. Extent
- B. History
- C. Causes
- D. Effects
- E. Remedies
 - 1. Through organizations
 - 2. Through legislation
- F. Present Tendencies

IX. POVERTY AND PAUPERISM

- A. Extent
- B. Causes
 - 1. Individual; preventable and non-preventable
 - 2. Social causes
- C. Prevention through Education
- D. Direct Relief and Indirect Relief
 - 1. Through private and charitable organizations
 - 2. By the governmental agencies

X. DEPENDENTS AND DEFECTIVES AND THEIR CARE

- A. Blind
 - 1. Extent
 - 2. Causes
 - 3. Remedies
 - 4. Education
 - 5. Occupations for
- B. Deaf
 - 1. Extent
 - 2. Causes
 - 3. Remedies
 - 4. Education of
 - 5. Occupations
- C. Feeble-minded
 - 1. Extent
 - 2. Causes
 - 3. Prevention
 - 4. Treatment and care of
- D. Insane
 - 1. Extent
 - 2. Forms
 - 3. Causes
 - 4. Prevention
 - 5. Treatment and care of

XI. CRIME AND ITS PUNISHMENT

- A. Definition of Crime
- B. Extent and Cost of, in the United States
- C. Causes
 - 1. Individual, economic, social, etc.
- D. Methods of Treatment
 - 1. Punishment for
 - 2. Repression
 - 3. Reformation
 - 4. Prevention
- E. Reform in Prison Management
 - 1. Treatment of prisoners
 - 2. Parole
 - 3. Probation
 - 4. Privileges
 - 5. Labor systems
 - 6. Indeterminate sentences
 - 7. Vocational training of prisoners
 - 8. Other systems of reform
- F. Juvenile Offenders and Their Care

XII. THE LIQUOR PROBLEM

- A. Present Status of the Traffic and the Industry
- B. Effects of the Traffic
 - 1. On the individual
 - a) health, efficiency, support of home, etc.
 - 2. On society
 - a) crime, insanity, feeble-mindedness, poverty
 - b) Moral standards, pauperism, etc.
- C. Control and Abolition
 - 1. Through legislation
 - 2. By employers
 - 3. By substitutes for the saloon
 - 4. By education of the individual
- D. The Temperance Movement
 - 1. Societies
 - 2. Extent of prohibition
 - 3. Educational movements

XIII. EDUCATION AND SOCIAL PROGRESS

- A. Education for Life and Its Meaning
- B. The Efficient Man and His Relation to Progress
- C. Education and Prevention of Social Problems
 - 1. Poverty, dependent classes, immigration problems, etc.
- D. Education and Progress in the Past
- E. Present Demands of Society upon the Individual

XIV. CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY OF COURSE

NOTE.—When this course was given in central Illinois, the topic "The Negro Problem" was included but is omitted now.

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON

No list of titles or positions held by Professor Henderson intimates, much less exhausts, the manifold relationships and services of his useful and influential life. With his academic standards and achievements he blended personal influence to a rare degree. He was both professor and fellow-student, pastor and preacher at the University, consoler of the sorrowing, adviser of the perplexed, inspirer of the aspiring, sponsor for those whom he fitted for responsible positions, counselor of public officials, speaker on special occasions, and personal friend with a genius for friendship.

To write a personal appreciation of Professor Henderson for publication seems almost foreign to the spirit of his friendship and of his public service. He rather closed than opened the way for any expression of appreciation, even from his intimate friends.

In his public service he neither sought nor expected credit. He simply and devotedly undertook to do what seemed to be incumbent upon him. He was as willing to get as to give help to others.

He was so straightforward and transparent that no one needed to look twice to see clear through his intent and motive. In undertaking what ought to be attempted, he dared to fail, yet did his best to succeed. Though always shrinking from self-assertion, he never hesitated in asserting the claims of justice and charity with a vigor and intensity which increased with his years.

Deferential to others' feelings and opinions to an extent which seemed to be disadvantageous to his own endeavors at times, he never failed to stand sturdily and courageously for that public policy which was best attested by facts and experience, whenever occasion required aggression or defense.

He never spared himself under burdens and labors which, however, might not have shortened his life had they been lightened by the personal and financial resources which are heedlessly withheld from the very few real public burden-bearers. He put his all into the public service and worked his life out to its very end right worthily of the civic patriotism through which he deliberately chose to express his Christian manhood.

Chicago and all America lose a citizen foremost in self-sacrificing, public-spirited, constructive service and gain the heritage of a type of citizenship which is the hope of the future.—GRAHAM TAYLOR, *The Survey*.

MEETING OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

The meeting of the North Central Association from March 18 to 20 was significant because of the action taken in regard to approved colleges and also because of certain committee reports which indicate clearly the growth of the movement toward the enlargement of the secondary schools.

The approved list of colleges and higher institutions was much expanded in accordance with a principle adopted at the last meeting of the Association. It was then pointed out that the higher institutions of this territory are so heterogeneous in character that the only useful list of the different kinds of institutions which continue the education of high-school graduates is a list giving detailed information on the significant characteristics of each institution. Thus the name "college" is altogether ambiguous and extends in the one direction into the university and, on the other hand, is used to cover normal schools and even secondary-school courses. In the same fashion teachers' colleges are various in their type. Some of them deal only with students who are preparing to teach in elementary schools, while others give advanced college courses. It was, therefore, voted at the meeting of 1914 that the committee of the Commission should prepare a single list of all higher institutions, this list to include all the different kinds of institutions which are well equipped and prepared to continue the work of the school. This list was further to present details with regard to the student body, the faculty, salaries, courses offered, and material equipment. Such a list was at hand for action by the Commission and was adopted. It will be printed in full in the report of the Association.

In regard to the definition of units and the general organization of the high school several significant reports were made. A report was presented by the Committee on the Definition of Units which emphasized the necessity of evaluating units differently according to whether they are given in the early part of the high-school curriculum or in the latter part.

The second committee which had to do with the reorganization of the secondary school emphasized the same general principle, and the two

reports together called attention very emphatically to the importance of developing a junior high school.

At the final session of the Association papers were presented showing the rapid development of junior colleges on the foundation of secondary schools. It is the practice of many of the higher institutions in this territory to accept the advanced work done in high schools as a substitute for Freshman and Sophomore college work.

The tendencies and principles thus referred to in committee reports and in papers were subjects of much vigorous discussion. The small college, particularly, is interested in these various movements because the small college depends in very large measure upon its Freshman and Sophomore years for its student body. In fact, about one-half of the colleges on the approved list of the Association matriculate each year half of their student body. Any withdrawal of the Freshman year from such institutions would, of course, mean a very great loss in attendance.

Nothing final was done about these committee reports, but the committees were continued for another year and preparation was made for a full and complete discussion of the principles presented by these committees.

The officers of the Association for the ensuing year are Professor Clark of the University of Illinois, president; Principal H. E. Brown of the New Trier Township High School, secretary; and Principal M. H. Stuart, treasurer.

C. H. J.

THE UNIVERSITY OF UTAH AND FREE SPEECH

With the University of Wisconsin under a cross-fire of investigations, and with resolutions threatening similar investigations for the University of Minnesota introduced before the legislature of that state, the university situation might have been considered sufficiently lively. Recent developments in the University of Utah, however, for celerity and dramatic action, throw all others in the shade.

It may be perilous to attempt comment on the Utah situation from this distance, especially since events move so rapidly and the maze of charges and counter-charges is so intricate. But distance has the supreme advantage of adding coolness and, we trust, impartiality to the view. Here in the (comparative) East we may perhaps see lights and shades in the picture not apparent to him who is in the thick of the cloud.

What the relation of the upheaval to Mormonism may be we are not prepared to say. It is noted on the one hand that all of the discharged members of the faculty are non-Mormons; President Kingsbury, however, whom the *Salt Lake Herald-Republican* triumphantly points to as a Democrat and a Unitarian, declares that Professors Knowlton, Wise, Snow, and Bing were discharged solely for "the good of the university," which he later defined to be "disloyalty" to himself. We are informed by the one side that the Board of Regents is for the most part a Mormon board, and that most or all of the new appointees are Mormon men; the supporters of the administration, on the other hand, maintain, that the action could not be taken "along religious lines, since the instructors are of all varieties of religious belief, Mormons being greatly in the minority"—an argument beside the point; nor "along political lines, because political discussions of every sort are tabooed"—which as argument is most ingenious. In this conflict of accusation and denial the wise observer will wait for some impartial investigation, such as that contemplated by the American Association of University Professors.

The wise observer will wait, but in the meantime certain conclusions force themselves on one. Some twenty or more of the faculty have resigned as we write, and more resignations are to follow. The men who have given up their positions include the dean of the school of arts, the dean of the law school, seven professors, most of them heads of departments, several assistant professors, and a scattering number of instructors. Some of these men have built up the university, and have served the state anywhere from three to twenty years. The oldest dean in time of service and one of the youngest instructors refused alike to continue at their posts.

Now, men do not ordinarily resign for petty causes. Particularly are men loath to leave an institution with which they have been associated the best part of their lives. Moreover, men do not want to resign in time of controversy unless conviction forces them to do so, since their leaving is necessarily under a cloud. And most particularly faculty members do not, as a rule, resign sixteen at a time from motives of mere jealousy or personal dislike. We are therefore forced to the conclusion that either the fight for academic freedom must, as the insurgents declare, again be fought, with Utah for its battleground, or that the president of the university is singularly incompetent to get along with ordinary cultured men.

The intense conviction which glows in the printed and written utterances of the insurgent members must strike everyone who reads carefully. It is difficult to believe on the one hand that these men are self-deceived, or, on the other, that they are acting as they do from petty motives. If President Kingsbury was right in his action and his opponents are mistaken, then, to say the least, the uncertainty of his explanations contrasts most unfavorably with the singleness of purpose of Dean Cummings, Dean Holman, and their friends. Thus, no explanation was given for the discharge of the first four men except that vague phrase "for the good of the university"—which sounds like a police report; later we are told it was because of "disloyalty," which suggests in its connotations a very bad type of university administration. We are assured by their colleagues, moreover, that two of the four men discharged were very able men. The head of the English department was removed, at first without explanation; later the explanation was advanced that, though he was a good administrator, he was inefficient in the classroom. The peculiar thing about his case is that while he was removed from his administrative office he was retained as a professor of English! The respectful petition sent to the regents by the faculty was returned with the curt announcement that the answer would be found in the reports of the board—a method of answering petitions before they are received which is apparently peculiar to Utah. All in all, the president, if he is right, has admirably succeeded in putting his case in the worst possible light.

The situation from the most severe point of view looks ugly; from a more charitable standpoint, it is very unfortunate. Information from Utah states, we do not know how authoritatively, that 800 of the 1,200 students have declared they will not return next year. There seems to be a feeling that the close of the university year in June will see a general exodus by members of the faculty who do not wish to remain in so uncomfortable a position. It is probable that the president and the regents will have great difficulty in getting good men to fill the places now vacant until some sort of an understanding is arrived at and the situation is cleared up. One cannot help admiring the idealism of the gray-haired men who have resigned from comfortable places at a time of life when they will have great difficulty in securing others anywhere near as good; of the young men who have thrown up their first jobs for the sake of their convictions. We do not wish to do President Kingsbury and the regents an injustice, but against this altruistic self-sacrifice, the policy of the administration seems not only a little selfish, but worse

than that, a very blundering one. An open statement by the president, a frank consultation with the deans, tactful generalship by the regents would at least have diminished, if not prevented, the unpleasantness which now exists.

H. M. J.

THE TWENTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF
CHICAGO WITH RELATED SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The first conference held at the University of Chicago with representatives of high schools, in the fall of 1892, was amply accommodated in a small lecture room. The Twenty-seventh Annual Conference, occurring Friday, April 16, 1915, taxed to their uttermost the largest lecture and classrooms on the University premises. This demand for space was made by fifteen departmental conferences devoted respectively to the consideration of departments of study of mutual importance to high schools and colleges. Approximately a thousand high-school officers and teachers and five hundred boys and girls were the guests of the University on that day. This situation is the result of a steady development of relations between the University and secondary schools, proceeding through the entire history of the University. No one could have participated in the sessions of this latest conference without being convinced that President Harper at the very beginning of the University's life wisely chose the term "co-operation" to designate the relationship which he and those then associated with him wished to establish between the University and secondary schools.

The idea itself was then by no means familiar. The colleges and universities had expressed little, if any, interest in secondary schools, beyond dictating the terms of admission and sometimes "canvassing" for students. Such an assembly as that to which we have referred would have been impracticable and perhaps even inconceivable. Whether justly or not, the attitude of the colleges toward the secondary schools was assumed to be taken in an arbitrary and unsympathetic spirit. And the high schools responded, some with submission and fear, and others with more or less distinct protest. It seems hardly extravagant to say that the ideal of the first president of the University has been at last completely realized. During the past three years, especially, the conferences of the University with high schools have attracted great numbers of high-school superintendents, principals, and teachers between whom and the officers of the University problems have been discussed with the utmost frankness. The meetings are conducted under the stress of mutual desire to solve these problems, not from the point of view of the

University nor even from that of the schools, but rather with the view to securing the best conditions for the boys and girls immediately concerned.

Especially during these three years the conferences have been devoted to questions of vital moment. In 1913 the general topic was "Economy in Education," with a view to discussing from every point of view the means whereby overlapping and every kind of waste might be corrected. The University had a very concrete contribution to this question in the form of actual laboratory work then in progress in its Elementary and High schools looking to an ultimate saving of two years in the educational stages. In 1914 the general topic was "Recent Progress and Present Conditions in the Teaching of High-School Subjects." In the departmental conferences devoted to this subject suggestions were made and plans formed that immediately and permanently modified the procedure in the teaching of certain high-school subjects. In 1915 the general subject of the conference was "The Relation of the Organized Library to the School." This brought into consideration a third party to co-operation, namely, the library; and the conception of the field of co-operation in the interests of secondary education was wonderfully enlarged.

By means of this great conference and all similar assemblies bringing together college and high-school people the atmosphere has been cleared of mutual suspicions and misunderstandings. Closer articulation of the different stages of work has been effected. A better apprehension of methods has been reached. Economy of time has been secured. The imaginary division between high school and college is no longer even imagined. The college frankly asks the high school, according to its ability, to take over junior college work. The high schools in turn are asking the colleges to recognize, as worthy of college credit, work of appropriate quantity and quality performed in the high school. All this and more has come to pass through acquaintance and conference between open-minded men and women. It affords encouragement to the hope that we have discovered the best way and are actually following the best methods for further progress toward what is sound in educational procedure.

N. B.

NON-COMPETITIVE TRACK GAMES

We are indebted to Mr. A. S. Hotchkiss, director of athletics, Hanover College, Hanover, Illinois, for a plan of scoring non-competitive track and field games. Its purpose is to interest all students in track and

field athletics, and to avoid the lamentable tendency to confine athletic training to the few capable of winning points in inter-school meets.

Mr. Hotchkiss says: "The aim is to interest as many students as possible, regardless of their athletic ability; to offer continued recreative exercise with the team influence; to recognize acquired ability; to offer an advantage to the team composed of the greatest numbers; and

A TABLE FOR SCORING POINTS IN NON-

EVENT	POINTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
50-yd. dash.	98	8	7	6 ¹	6 ²
100-yd. dash.	198	18	17	16	15	14	13 ³	13 ¹	13	12 ³	12 ²	12 ¹	12	14 ⁴	11 ³	11 ²
220-yd. dash.	34	33	32	31	30	29	28	27	26	25 ⁴	25 ³	25	24 ⁴	24 ³	24 ²	24 ¹	24
440-yd. dash.	73	72	71	70	69	68	67	66	65	64	63	62	67	60	58 ³	58 ¹	57 ⁴	57 ²	57	56 ⁴	56 ³	56 ²	56 ¹	56 ⁵	56
120-yd. hurdle. . .	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23 ³	23	22 ³	22 ²	21 ¹	21 ²	21	20 ³	20 ¹	20	19 ⁴	19 ³	19 ²	19 ¹	19	18 ⁴	18	
220-yd. hurdle. . .	42	41	40	39	38	37	36	35	34	33 ³	32 ³	32	31 ³	31 ¹	31	30 ⁴	30 ¹	30 ²	30 ¹	30	29 ⁴	29 ³	29 ²	29	
Half-mile.	2-43	2-42	2-41	2-40	2-39	2-38	2-37	2-36	2-35	2-34	2-33	2-32	2-31	2-30	2-29	2-28	2-27	2-26	2-25	2-24	2-23	2-22	2-21	2-20	
Mile run.	9m	8-50	8-40	8-30	8-20	8-10	8	7-50	7-40	7-30	7-20	7-10	7	6-55	6-50	6-45	6-40	6-35	6-30	6-25
Discus throw.	40f	42	44	46	48	50	52	54	56	58	60	62	64	66	68	70	72	74	76	78	80	82	84	86	
Shot put (12 lb.).	17f	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	30-6	31	31-6	32	32-6	33	33-6	34	34-6	35	
Hammer (12 lb.).	40f	42	44	46	48	50	52	54	56	60	64	68	72	76	80	84	88	92	96	100	101	102	104	105	
Broad jump (R)....	10	11	12	14	14-3	14-6	15	16	16-2	16-4	16-5	16-6	16-8	16-10	16-11	17	17-1	17-2	17-3	17-4	17-5	
High jump (R)....	2-9	3	3-3	3-4	3-5	3-6	3-7	3-8	3-9	3-10	3-11	4	4-1	4-2	4-3	4-4	4-5	4-6	4-7	
Pole vault.	5-6	5-7	5-9	5-10	6	6-1	6-2	6-3	6-4	6-5	6-6	6-7	6-8	6-10	7	7-2	7-4	7-6	7-8	7-10	8	

METHOD.—In all of the dashes and in both hurdle races the large figures to the right of the event are seconds. The smaller figures are fifths of seconds. In the half-mile and mile runs the first large figure is minutes, then the dash, with seconds following, and the smaller figure is fifths. In the events for boys...

to encourage all-round ability." Here is a program worth the study of high schools, colleges, and universities, most of which are saddled with a top-heavy, inefficient, and often pernicious system of competitive games.

The author of this ingenious plan describes its operation as follows:

In operation the various natural divisions of classes have been used successfully, both in high schools and in colleges. A series of several meets are generally arranged, taking place after school hours and one meet completed each week. Certain events are announced in advance for each day's activities. The various members of each team compete separately, except, generally to facilitate matters, two or more participate in the half and mile runs, at one time.

In the arranging of the value of the points the fact is recognized that no two persons would agree on the requirement. The present plan is not considered perfect. It has stood the tests of several seasons and has worked out very

well in high schools and colleges of the usual ability. This arrangement tries to take in account that after a certain amount of ability is acquired it should be harder to make points and also to take into consideration the relationship of the ordinary athlete and the star performer as regards points, and to encourage participation in a new event.

By referring to the tabulated form, if a boy could vault 5 feet 6 inches he won one point; if he could vault 6 feet he won eight points, and so on up to

COMPETITIVE TRACK AND FIELD GAMES

[illegible]

seconds. Thus if a person runs the 440-yd. dash in $58\frac{1}{2}$ seconds he scores 15 points. If he runs it in $55\frac{1}{2}$ seconds he scores 28 points. In the mile for height or distance the first set of figures is feet and the figures following the dash are inches. Arranged by A. S. Hotchkiss.

11 feet 6 inches which gives him fifty points. Again if the young man could run the 100 yards in 19 seconds, he won one point, and so on. The easiest event to win points is the 50-yard dash so arranged to encourage endeavor as the first event on the program. Every man is expected to enter as many events as possible, and no strain is forced upon him if three or four events of a suitable variety are arranged for each day. The requirement for points is made so low that any normal boy can win points. Team spirit asserts itself and influences every possible member of each team to compete, regardless of his proficiency in the various events. The total number of points made by each team determines its standing, and in a series of meets the grand total decides the winner. The points will easily total as high as 600 for any ordinary individual during three meets, and team scores run into the thousands. This system had proved to be a success, and, so far as I know, is used in only one other college and in one high school in this country.

VITALIZING THE HIGH-SCHOOL INFLUENCE

Samuel Hixon, principal of the Knoxville (Tenn.) High School is making his school a social institution reaching deeply into the activities of the city. Class instruction touches life in various phases. English, for example, emphasizes oral expression and magazine reading; for composition material pupils visit Knoxville's industries, consult managers, and read scientific articles. Science sends entire classes upon excursions to tie up book information with real observation. Classes elect members to report to the whole school-body the findings of each visit. Advanced courses in chemistry send the best pupils into testing laboratories to assist experts in the analysis of food products.

School life and home life of high-school pupils are correlated through a "confidential group system." Each teacher is assigned to a group of pupils averaging about thirty in number and designated "the confidential group." Under this system it becomes the duty of the teachers:

1. To establish intimate relations with the pupils of their groups—to become their adviser and friend. The teachers meet their groups once each day in short conference on appropriate matters, directing their pupils in a constructive way toward a proper appreciation of their opportunities, fixing right standards of conduct, and establishing relations of mutual confidence and sympathy. Under this plan the pupils feel that the teachers are their friends and really sympathize with them in their difficulties. The result is being felt in a very appreciable way in the splendid response on the part of the pupils to all the demands of the school.

2. To study the home conditions of the pupils of their groups by visiting their homes and getting acquainted with their parents. To facilitate carrying out this requirement many of the teachers have been meeting their pupils and parents at the school in a social hour with a short literary program and light refreshments. These meetings are proving of incalculable value in socializing the school and in bringing the home and the school into more intimate relationship.

BOOK REVIEWS

The English Novel before the Nineteenth Century. By ANNETTE BROWN HOPKINS and HELEN SARD HUGHES. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. xxi+794.

An anthology of the novel seems at first blush about as practicable as an anthology of encyclopedias. This book would be interesting, therefore, for its very attempt, if for nothing else. However, it is not merely an attempt in a virgin field; it is an excellent instance of how to put together a book of extracts which shall illustrate the development of a literary form.

Of course no attempt is made to quote entire novels; excepting in one case, the plan has been "to offer from pre-nineteenth-century novels vivid and interesting excerpts which should illustrate definite technical and historical features in the development of the novel, and prove of sufficient length to give an idea of the general character of the book. . . ." The one exception is *The Castle of Otranto*, which is out of print, and is, because of its brevity, given complete. Liberal extracts from *Sandford and Merton*, which is also now unobtainable, are quoted; the inclusion of these two rare but important books makes the present volume especially valuable.

The book opens with Malory and Lyly and closes with Godwin's *Caleb Williams*. The intervening selections have been carefully chosen. No two people can agree upon what to include in an anthology, however; and the editors are open to the charge of a slight inconsistency. *The Vicar of Wakefield* is omitted because it is easily obtainable in cheap editions; but *The Pilgrim's Progress*, and Richardson, Fielding, Sterne, and Smollett are surely as accessible as Goldsmith, and since both Walpole and Mrs. Radcliffe are included as exemplars of the school of terror, either one might easily have given place to the *Vicar* without weakening the book. It would seem to the present writer less important to give two illustrations of the Gothic novel than to omit entirely so famous a book as Goldsmith's. The matter is however of minor importance, since Goldsmith can always be obtained.

If the Introduction were a little surer in touch another slight blemish would have been removed from so admirable a work. The paragraphs on the different novels would seem more solid if they were placed before each selection as a kind of very brief introduction. Placed together and occupying some seven pages, by their place in the book, they suggest more weighty intent than the editors had in mind, and the resulting impression is one of perfunctoriness. An introduction must be either very brief or very thorough; these paragraphs fall between the two stools.

With this one exception the work is excellent in idea, careful in selection, and convenient in form, and, in the trite phrase of the reviewer, it will fill a serious want. It is heartily recommended to all classes in the history of the novel as presenting necessary material in a most convenient form.

A judiciously "selected bibliography" is included in the apparatus; it deals not only with the novel in general, but with the specific schools of novel-writing illustrated in this book.

HOWARD MUMFORD JONES

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Bourbon and Vasa. By J. H. SACRET. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1914. Pp. vi+324.

This volume is one of a series of Oxford textbooks covering the field of European history, four of which have previously been published. Under the above title are depicted in the main the events of the seventeenth century, the final scenes in the religious wars, and the attempted ascendancies of France and Sweden. The period is discussed in twelve chapters, beginning with a survey of the state of Europe at the opening of the seventeenth century and the causes of the Thirty Years' War, and closing with an explanation of the check placed upon French ambition as a result of the war of the Spanish succession, and of the collapse of the Swedish hegemony in the north. The political, diplomatic, and military history of the time is traced with considerable detail. Satisfactory, though brief, sketches of some of the leading figures of the period are given, and excellent summaries of the most important events, as, for example, the Treaty of Westphalia and the English Revolution of 1688, the author in the latter case following Seeley in his masterly analysis of the general European character of the revolution, and of the subsequent position of England as the organizer, banker, and paymaster of the alliances against France, Richelieu, Gustavus Adolphus, Colbert, Louis XIV, William III, Marlborough, and their aids fill most of the pages. The reader obtains a picture of Europe peopled only by kings, princes, generals, ministers, diplomats, and soldiers. The Continent seems to be a theater only for wars, campaigns, battles, conspiracies, treaties, and the transfer of territories from one power to another. If this is history, it is a very one-sided sort of history. The life of the great mass of the people, with the conditions and institutions under which they worked, is not touched upon at all, not even as an explanatory foundation for the political history. While the summaries of the military operations are generally clear, out of the superabundance of details the reader obtains only the impression of the same territories fought over again and again, invaded, occupied, surrendered, reoccupied, and so on without end. Likewise with the many individuals of minor importance. Represented by mere names, they pass rapidly across the pages, in bewildering, kaleidoscopic manner, without introduction, without personality or explanation, and without comment as to their exit. The relative importance of subjects is not always

observed, as much space being accorded to the single campaign of Blenheim as to the discussion of the intellectual and artistic development of Holland, the reforms of Peter the Great in Russia, or the work of Colbert in France. In the maze of succeeding statements some are not always clear, as, for example, the assertion of Cromwell's triumph over the Rump, which, unexplained and not previously referred to, might leave the reader in doubt as to whether the term was used in its parliamentary or anatomical sense. Within its limitations the work has been well done, although not so satisfactory as the volume of Wakeman covering the same period. The press work and general appearance are all that could be desired in a textbook. Six maps, placed at the end of the volume, enable the reader to follow the geographical intricacies of the text.

D. L. PATTERSON

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

Vocational and Moral Guidance. By JESSE BUTTRICK DAVIS. Boston: Ginn & Co. \$1.25.

The book is the direct outgrowth of the experience of the author in attempting to solve the double problem of vocational and moral guidance. He shows, on the one hand, that the choice of a vocation is an all-important moral problem; on the other, that ethical instruction can best be associated, under present conditions, with the selection of a life-work. "Upon thought," he says, "all will grant that vocational guidance is in itself moral, and that moral guidance without application to life's purpose is of little value—the two are inseparable." He points out what is coming to be recognized more and more by thinking educators—that the school is partially responsible for the misfits in life and that it must therefore undertake seriously the task of finding for each youth the work for which he is best fitted. He shows, too, that the pupil must be led to look at the question of vocation, not merely from a narrow individualistic point of view, but from the point of view of humanity at large. The boy must be led to the idea of choosing that occupation in which he can best serve society. In a word, he regards it as most important, not to influence any young person toward any particular vocation, but to get him to take *seriously* the problem of the choice of a life-work.

The practical character of the book is at once apparent. In the first place, it outlines methods by which the individual boy or girl may be led to determine his bent. In the second place, Mr. Davis has, we think, made ethics as effective a subject of study as it can be under modern conditions, by combining it with vocational and what he terms "prevocational" instruction. Finally, he has imparted a new and live interest to the study of English composition; for he has woven his vocational and moral teaching around the work in English. Pupils are required to write essays on such subjects as "My Experiences in Earning Money," "My Natural Ability," "Trained Nursing," etc. The subjects are adapted to the different grades. In this work Principal Davis has

had the able co-operation of his teachers, some of whom have given accounts of their experiments in the "Contributions," which constitute over a third of the volume.

The book suffers slightly from two or three defects. The material does not seem to have been as thoroughly digested as might be. There is some unnecessary repetition, while, on the other hand, more frequent summaries would make clearer the important points. The volume contains a good many rather commonplace generalizations, generalizations which will ring all too familiarly in the ears of school men. Some of these broad assertions, too, Mr. Davis would find it difficult to prove, as, for example, "in spite of all, the old order is swiftly passing away before the more altruistic spirit of a modern age" (p. 99). One wishes that the author had devoted less space in the book to such rather careless generalizations, and a larger proportion to his own experiments and especially to the results which he has obtained.

Whatever its minor faults, however, the volume is forceful and timely. It leaves one with a desire to know the author and to study his system in Grand Rapids at first hand. His book ought to encourage school principals and teachers throughout the United States to give their serious attention to the problems of vocational and moral guidance.

JONATHAN FRENCH SCOTT

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

Readings from American Literature. By MARY EDWARDS CALHOUN and EMMA LEONORA MACLARNEY. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. xv+635. \$1.40.

It is always an ungracious thing to say of a book or a person that either is unnecessary, and yet the reviewer confesses he does not see the need of another anthology in American literature. If the present book were confined to some phase of our literary history which had not already been covered and covered well, it would be more welcome. It follows the standard and usually impossible task of attempting to illustrate literary development all the way from John Smith to James Whitcomb Riley, and as a result, the necessity of giving important things has led the editors to include little that is not easily available elsewhere. For the standard poets the present volume cannot hope to compete with Page's *Chief American Poets*; for the Colonial period it is not so complete as Cairns's *Early American Writers*, and for the usual prose classics studied in American literature classes it cannot replace the "Riverside Literature Series."

Considerations either of space or of copyright have prevented the editors from giving much space to the section headed "The Later National Period—Minor Writers." But it is here, unfortunately, that the one real need of classes lies: in the want of some kind of a guidebook which shall pilot them through the literary development of America since 1870, say. Our chief literary landmarks before that time are already mapped out and overmapped, but the average literary history huddles the later writers into a crowded final

chapter which is no less confusing than it is unsatisfactory. If the editors of the present volume were to turn their skill to the production of an anthology which should include representative work by Hamlin Garland, Mary E. Wilkins Freeman, Sarah Orne Jewett, Thomas Nelson Page, William Vaughan Moody, Frank Norris, Stephen Crane, and a score of other significant writers of later date, their work would receive a heartier welcome by the reviewer.

HOWARD MUMFORD JONES

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Democracy's High School. By WILLIAM D. LEWIS, Principal of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia. Riverside Educational Monographs. Edited by HENRY SUZZALLO. New York: Macmillan, 1914. Pp. xii+130. \$0.60.

This book will challenge the attention of the man who would defend the traditional curriculum of the high school, and force him to examine anew the grounds of his defense. To the man who believes that there is need of a reorganization of the high school to adapt it better to present-day conditions, this book will furnish many valuable suggestions.

The contents of the book are suggested by the chapter headings, which are as follows: "A Social View of the High School," "The High School and the Boy," "The High School and the Girl," "The High School and the College," "The Administration of the Course of Study."

The author's point of view is set forth in his own words, on p. 5: "The American people—rarely the American pedagogues—have begun to see that the task of the one completely socialized agency for human betterment is not to give the brilliant John and Henry advantages over the phlegmatic James and Tom, but to give to each the type of training most likely to enable him to become the most intelligent, conscientious, and efficient citizen possible with his mental and physical endowments and limitations."

To quote from the Foreword by Theodore Roosevelt: "The vital thing about this book is that it shows just where the high schools which the American people are supporting can render a far larger service than the mere inculcation of knowledge. It presents the problem from the point of view of the boy and girl rather than from that of the subject, and shows how completely this change in viewpoint transforms our traditional thought of the school."

E. D. LONG

STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
LA CROSSE, WIS.

The Modern City and Its Problems. By FREDERIC C. HOWE. New York: Scribner, 1915. Pp. vii+390.

The indefatigable Dr. Howe has produced a fourth contribution to the literature dealing with the modern city. The main object which the author appears to pursue in this volume is to emphasize the fact that many of the problems of the modern city arise from the persistent interference of the state

in municipal affairs and from its consequent lack of power to take care of itself. Thus it appears that constitutional requirements as to city charters prevent local adaptation of the fundamental city law to local conditions and needs; state regulation of public-service corporations fails to secure proper service and standards; state regulation of the power to tax and borrow cripples the city at the outset in its attempts at self-improvement, and so on. In addition, the indirect results of state control are even more deplorable. Citizens take no interest in a municipality whose powers are thus limited and confined; civic pride in civic accomplishment languishes perforce; and as a result the powers which do fall within the purview of the city are exercised in a manner conducive neither to civic pride nor to civic accomplishment.

This, in a word, seems to be the position that the author wishes to set forth in this volume; but unfortunately for its unity, coherence, and emphasis, there has been included a great deal of matter which, though interesting and often important in itself, adds nothing to the point that is being emphasized. Indeed, the reader is sometimes led to suspect that the author is perhaps quite as interested in telling us what has happened in city life during the last decade as he is in proving that the city ought to have a larger measure of home rule. The inclusion of so much historical and descriptive matter weakens the force of the message which the book was intended to convey, and renders its content necessarily general, discursive, and diffuse. A comparison with the previous volumes written by Dr. Howe prompts the suggestion that the work under discussion fails to "hang together" as does the *British City*, for instance.

An appendix contains an excellent bibliography, arranged in sections to correspond roughly with the treatment followed in the text. The value of the bibliography would have been enhanced by including the names of the publishers of the works mentioned therein. A new departure has been included in the *Modern City* in the use of heavy-type subject headings within the chapters. This suggests use of the volume as a text for an introductory study of municipal functions, for which it is admirably suited.

LEONARD D. WHITE.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

Economics in Secondary Schools. By JOHN HAYES, PH.D. Riverside Educational Monographs. Edited by HENRY SUZZALLO. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1914. Pp. xiii+93.

This book is a plea for the study of elementary economics in the high school. The author made use of a questionnaire to secondary-school teachers of economics. The book tells how the study of economics may be adjusted to the mind of the high-school boys and girls, discusses the training of teachers for this subject, examines the problem of the textbook, and points out the way in which society would gain if economics were taught in our high schools. A suggestive outline for a course in economics is given and a list of elementary books on economics is appended. The study is well done and timely.

H. N. S.

BOOK-NOTES

LAKE, PHILIP. *Physical Geography*. Cambridge: University Press, 1915.
Pp. xx+324 and 7 maps. 7s. 6d.

An excellent text for advanced high-school pupils or for elementary normal-school and college students. Much use of graphs and charts. There are twenty plates, which are not extraordinarily good.

GREEN, J. A. *Life and Work of Pestalozzi*. Baltimore: Warwick & York.
Pp. viii+393. \$1.40.

The life of Pestalozzi plus a complete translation of his diary; a critical account of his methods and extracts from his writings. A complete bibliography is added. The book lacks style.

DAVIS, KARY C. (ED.). *Cromwell's Agriculture and Life*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1915. Pp. x+369.

A very complete text for teachers of general courses in agriculture in high schools and normal schools. If anything, it is too inclusive, but a judicious selection by the teacher should make it a very valuable book. Illustrated with photographs. Bibliographies and study questions are included.

RHODES, CHARLES ELBERT (ED.). *Old Testament Narratives, Selected and Edited*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1915. Pp. 395. \$0.40.

A study of the Bible as literature for high schools. Little is given, however, that a wise teacher could not find in the ordinary Bible.

HOSIC, JAMES FLEMING (ED.). *Macaulay's Speech on Copyright and Lincoln's Address at Cooper Institute, with Other Addresses and Letters*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1915. Pp. xxx+169.

The reason for the union in one volume of Macaulay and Lincoln is their use in oral English. The introduction also tries to draw a comparison between the men.

WESTELL, W. PERCIVAL. *Bird Studies in Twenty-Four Lessons*. Cambridge: University Press, 1914. Pp. xii+152. 2s. 6d.

A series of studies of British birds arranged by seasons. Illustrated.

UNWIN, ERNEST E. *Pond Problems*. Cambridge: University Press, 1914.
Pp. xii+119. 2s.

Simple lessons, giving direction for the capture and study of specimens, and for the construction of apparatus. Illustrated.

LAW, DOROTHY. *A Book of Simple Gardening Especially Adapted for Schools*. Cambridge: University Press, 1914. Pp. vi+92.

Arranged by months in a series of hints for weekly lessons.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS¹

IRENE WARREN

Librarian, School of Education, University of Chicago

- Affleck, G. B. Selected bibliography of physical training and hygiene. *Am. Phys. Educa. R.* 20:90-100. (Fe. '15.)
- Alt, Harold L. Mechanical equipment of school buildings. *Am. School Bd. J.* 50:13-15. (Mr. '15.)
- Berns, Frederick H. The book-plate as a school problem. *School Arts M.* 14:527-29. (Ap. '15.)
- Boyce, Arthur C. A method for guiding and controlling the judging of teachers. *Am. School Bd. J.* 50:9-10, 66-67. (Mr. '15.)
- Bradford, Mary D. Motives for increasing professional interest and growth of teachers. *Am. School Bd. J.* 50:16-17. (Mr. '15.)
- Brandenburg, George C. The language of a three-year-old child. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:89-120. (Mr. '15.)
- Brown, Elmer Ellsworth. Collegiate education as a national problem. *School and Society* 1:397-400. (20 Mr. '15.)
- Brown, Robert M. The European war and geography. *Educa. R.* 49:248-57. (Mr. '15.)
- Bryan, William Lowe. The share of the faculty in administration and government. *School and Society* 1:339-41. (6 Mr. '15.)
- Burris, W. P. The opportunity of a municipal university in relation to the city schools. *School and Society* 1:295-300. (27 Fe. '15.)
- Chancellor, William E. The selection of county school superintendents. *School and Society* 1:444-50. (27 Mr. '15.)

¹*Abbreviations.*—*Am. J. of Psychol.*, *American Journal of Psychology*; *Am. Phys. Educa. R.*, *American Physical Educational Review*; *Am. School Bd. J.*, *American School Board Journal*; *Atlan.*, *Atlantic Monthly*; *Educa.*, *Education*; *Educa. R.*, *Educational Review*; *El. School J.*, *Elementary School Journal*; *English J.*, *English Journal*; *J. of Educa. (London)*, *Journal of Education (London)*; *J. of Educa. Psychol.*, *Journal of Educational Psychology*; *Kind. M.*, *Kindergarten Magazine*; *Liv. Age*, *Living Age*; *Man. Train. and Voca. Educa.*, *Manual Training and Vocational Education*; *Outl.*, *Outlook*; *Pedagog. Sem.*, *Pedagogical Seminary*; *Psychol. Clinic*, *Psychological Clinic*; *School Arts M.*, *School Arts Magazine*; *Sci. Am.*, *Scientific American*; *Sci. Am. Sup.*, *Scientific American Supplement*; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, *Teachers College Record*; *Tech. World M.*, *Technical World Magazine*; *Train. School Bull. (N.J.)*, *Training School Bulletin (New Jersey)*.

- Childe, Elizabeth. Parents and education. *Outl.* 109:539-41. (3 Mr. '15.)
- Cohen, Julius Henry. The protocol and industrial education. *Man. Train. and Voca. Educa.* 16:465-71. (Ap. '15.)
- Courtis, S. A. Objective standards as a means of controlling instruction and economizing time. *School and Society* 1:433-36. (27 Mr. '15.)
- Crawford, Mary. The laboratory equipment of the teacher of English. *English J.* 4:145-51. (Mr. '15.)
- Day, George Parmly. The function and organization of university presses. *School and Society* 1:370-77. (13 Mr. '15.)
- Dean, Arthur D. A state program for industrial and social efficiency. *School and Society* 1:364-70. (13 Mr. '15.)
- DeLong, Wahnitā. The use of the conference hour. *English J.* 4:186-90. (Mr. '15.)
- Dewey, John. A policy of industrial education. *Man. Train. and Voca. Educa.* 16:393-97. (Mr. '15.)
- Dooley, L. W. The educational scrap heap and the blind alley job. *Sci. Am.* 112:247. (13 Mr. '15.)
- Dooley, L. W. The educational scrap heap and the blind alley job. *Sci. Am. Sup.* 79:170-71. (13 Mr. '15.)
- Downey, June E., and Anderson, John E. Automatic writing. *Am. J. of Psychol.* 26:161-95. (Ap. '15.)
- Garver, Austin S. Aristotle's theory of art—a sketch. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:27-34. (Mr. '15.)
- Goddard, Henry H. The adaptation board as a measure of intelligence. *Train. School Bull.* 11:182-88. (Fe. '15.)
- Goudge, Mabel. A simplified method of conducting McDougall's spot-pattern test. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 6:73-84. (Fe. '15.)
- Gray, C. Truman. The training of judgment in the use of the Ayres scale for handwriting. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 6:85-98. (Fe. '15.)
- Haggerty, M. E. The analysis of an occupation. *Man. Train. and Voca. Educa.* 16:472-79. (Ap. '15.)
- Henley, Faye. An experiment in the Francis W. Parker School of San Diego, California. *Kind. M.* 25:492-97. (Ap. '15.)
- Hicks, Vinnie Crandall. The value of the Binet mental age tests for first grade entrants. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 16:157-66. (Mr. '15.)
- Hinckley, Alice C. A case of retarded speech development. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:121-45. (Mr. '15.)
- Hollingworth, H. L. Articulation and association. *J. of Educa. Psychol.* 6:99-105. (Fe. '15.)
- How the English teach the war. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:152-55. (Mr. '15.)
- Johnston, Charles Hughes. High school terminology. *Educa. R.* 49:228-47. (Mr. '15.)
- Keller, Eleanor. Need for correlation of Binet-Simon tests with other tests of doing. *Psychol. Clinic* 9:18-22. (Mr. '15.)

- Keyser, Cassius J. Graduate mathematical instruction for graduate students not intending to become mathematicians. *Science* 41:443-55. (26 Mr. '15.)
- Lane, Henry A. Standard tests as an aid to supervision. *El. School J.* 15: 378-86. (Mr. '15.)
- Langenbeck, Mildred. A study of a five-year-old child. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:65-88. (Mr. '15.)
- Laughlin, E. V. The evolution of the American high school. *Educa.* 35: 446-49. (Mr. '15.)
- Lodge, Gonzalez. Oral Latin and its relation to the direct method. *Teach. Coll. Rec.* 16:18-28. (Mr. '15.)
- McCorkle, Charles E. Instruction in city schools concerning the war. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:1-26. (Mr. '15.)
- Mais, S. P. B. Public schools in war-time. *Liv. Age* 284:540-47. (27 Fe. '15.)
- Merton, R. H. Why you are tall or short. *Tech. World M.* 23:154-56. (Ap. '15.)
- Meusy, Mme. Notes on the education of backward children. *Train. School Bull. (N.J.)* 12:3-14. (Mr. '15.)
- Meyer, H. Th. Matth. The German school work during the five months of the European war. *Am. School Bd. J.* 50:8, 67. (Mr. '15.)
- Miller, G. A. Shamelessness as regards mathematical ignorance. *School and Society* 1:441-44. (27 Mr. '15.)
- Montmorency, J. E. G. de. English education in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. *J. of Educa. (London) Sup.* 47:186-89. (1 Mr. '15.)
- Moore, Earnest C. Shall Massachusetts equalize educational opportunity? *School and Society* 1:400-402. (20 Mr. '15.)
- Nice, Margaret Morse. The development of a child's vocabulary in relation to environment. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:35-64. (Mr. '15.)
- Palmer, Herbert H. Thrift in the high school. What one Boston school is doing to encourage it. *Educa.* 35:422-26. (Mr. '15.)
- Parsons, Elsie Clews. Nursery bugaboos. *Pedagog. Sem.* 22:147-51. (Mr. '15.)
- Pillsbury, W. B. The function and test of definition and method in psychology. *Science* 41:371-80. (12 Mr. '15.)
- Pine, John B. Notes on the building of a university. *Educa. R.* 49:217-27. (Mr. '15.)
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- Pritchett, Henry S. Standards and standardizers. *School and Society* 1: 336-39. (6 Mr. '15.)
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